



John 2 yoller



ENQUIRY

INTO THE

Nature of the Human Soul;

WHEREIN THE

Immateriality of the Soul

Is evinced from the

PRINCIPLES

O F

REASON and PHILOSOPHY.

VOL. II.

The THIRD EDITION.

To which is added, a Complete INDEX.

Έγω δὲ τί βύλομαι; καθαμαθεῖν την φύσιν, κὰ ταύτη ἔπεσθαι. Ερίετ. Ζηθω γαρ την ἀληθειαν, ὑφ' ἦς ἐδεὶς, πώποθε ἐδλάδη. Marc. Antonin.

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ENQUIRY

INTO THE

Nature of the Human Soul.

SECT. I.

An essay on the phænomenon of Dreaming, wherein is shewn from the INERTIA of matter, and the nature of mechanism above explained, that this appearance cannot be the effect of mechanism, or any cause working mechanically; and thence that it must be the effect of a living, designing cause. The several hypotheses for solving this appearance, mechanically, particularly examined, &c.

HE most remarkable Authors, who have afferted the materiality of the foul, have in consequence of that affertion, been solicitous to account for the phænomenon of dreaming mechanically, or so as to keep free of any living and intelli-Vol. II.

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gent cause; as Democritus, Epicurus, Lucretius, Hobbes; as also Aristotle, tho' he is not explicit as to the materiality of the soul (a), and certainly was no Atheist (b). Others,

(a) He says, it is not body, and yet cannot be without body, — Και δια τοῦτο καλῶς ὑπολαμβανουσιν οῖς δοκεῖ μύτε ἀνευ σώμα Θενίναι, μήτε σῶμά τι ψυχή σῶμα μὰν γὰς οῦκ ἐτι, σώμα Θενίναι, καὶ δια τοῦτο ἐν σώμα ι ὑπάςχει. De Anima, lib. 2. cap. 2. It seems then it is some power or property of body, the subject of other powers and properties. This is poor for the prince of philosophers. He comes nearer the truth in another place, as shall be observed elsewhere.

(b) He ascribes in the following comparisons foresight, order, government, and justice to God. Καθέλε δέ, όπερ ζν νης κυβερνήτης, εν άξιμαλι δε ήνιοχος, εν χορώ δε κορυφαίος, εν πόλει δε νόμος, εν τρατοπέδω δε ή εμών τοῦτο Θεος εν κόσμω. And to shew that the comparison comes short he adds, IIA, παθ΄ όσον, τοῖς μὲν, καμαληρον τὸ άξχειν, πολυκίνηλόν τε, καὶ πολυμέριμνου τῷ δὲ άλυπον, ἀπονόν τε, πάσης κεχωρισμένον σωμα]:κης ασθενείας κ. τ. λ. De Mundo cap. ii. ubi de Deo. One might make variety of observations from this place, upon the inconsistency of the present Aristotelian Atheist. Noris Aristotle himself (tho' no Atheist) consistent, who makes God the fole determining principle in his incorruptible, ingenerable, necessary world [ἐν ἀκινήτω γὰρ ἰδρυμένος, continues he, πάντα κινεί, κ περιάδει, όπε βελείαι, κ όπως, έν διαφόροις τε ίδεαις η φύσεσι».] A necessarily existing world could have no determining principle of its manner of existence, no change or viciffitude in it. But all this only by the by. because

because of the inconsistency of our dreams; that is, because the visions then exhibited to the Soul, are, for the most part, not of the same nature, or in the same order of nature, with external objects; for in that, I prefume, the supposed inconfistency will be found chiefly to lye; others, I fay, because of this, have ascribed the perfection of rational thinking to the matter of the body, which opinion Mr. Locke feems to favour. And others, because these visions have no real external objects, of which they are representations, have endeavoured to maintain that there are no such real external Objects; at least this was the reason why the real existence of material things was first called in question, or supposed a point which might admit of dispute. These several opinions shew us, that the consideration of this subject is not foreign to the present enquiry, but falls in naturally as a part of it; and therefore may farther ferve as an apology, for attempting to account for this appearance confistently with the principles before established, especially the inactivity of matter; and for endeavouring to shew that it infers none of those absurdities, with respect to the rational

nature of the foul, which are commonly urged from it; but rather proves to us the existence of some separate immaterial agents. Those who are satisfied from what goes before, that the natural powers of matter (as they are called) and of mechanism, have been extended much too far in the folution of the phænomena of nature, or rather that there are in truth no fuch powers; will readily allow that they can have no share in producing the present phænomenon: and those who still think, that this particular appearance of dreaming is an exception to all that has been faid in the preceding part of these papers, will be best satisfied by going on to examine circumstances minutely. indeed this be an exception to all that is faid, nothing at all is faid; and if what has been faid be folid, this, I hope; will not be found an exception to it. However, fuch an intricate subject cannot be cleared up in few words; therefore let me beg the attention, and candor of those who may have leifure to read this part of these papers; otherwise reasons may be condemned before they are heard. We shall find this advantage from the above-named Authors having written upon this

this subject before, that it will be the more easy to assign, and fix upon, the symptoms, accidents, and things remarkable about dreaming: and it cannot be unfair to argue from an Adversary's account of the thing in dispute. For this reason, I shall be particular in giving their fense in their own words, lest it might be thought a false gloss had been put upon them. Nor shall I always take the advantage of arguing from fuch pregnant instances, as they themselves allow to be fast; but reason from common and ordinary examples. The method infifted on shall be, first to give a natural solution of the appearance itself; and then to answer the objections that may be raised against it. And here all the collateral appearances that might be urged, shall be taken into consideration; and the affinity between possessing the fancy in fleep, or dreaming, and possessing it while awake, shall be remarked; as also between visions in sleep, and visions while awake, which are called apparitions; fuch as Plutarch tells us Brutus and Dion had offered to them; whose lives upon this account, among others, he compares together; observing only the philosophical confistency, without contending B 3 11.

tending for the reality of fuch relations. And, lastly, the mechanical folutions of this appearance, which the Authors abovementioned have given, shall be examined.

II. It hath been shewn before that the foul would never cease to exert its activity upon a rightly disposed body; unless some defect and want of reparation in the body, forced this principle of life and action to defift, and leave the material organ till the indisposition under which it labours be repaired. The circulation therefore, respiration, and all the other mechanical motions of the body remaining the fame, or rather becoming more regular than formerly, by the intermission of spontaneous motion; this reparation is begun to be made by the laws of the animal economy, and the efficiency of a superior Power; and the body remains without motion or fense (c). In this state,

(c) Even this shews us, that sense and life are not produceable from the mechanical motions of the body; otherwise they ought to be produced in it necessarily in sleep, as at other times; and more regularly then, being constant and mechanical as their cause, and proportionally persect with it. Indeed I think sleep would be

when all is at rest and silent, and the impressions on the sensory designedly sealed up from the view of the mind; it is easy, as has been observed (N° 13. Sect. V. Vol. I.) to make new and foreign impressions on the sensor; nothing else acting upon it at the

an impossible appearance, if the regular motions of the animal occonomy were productive of sense and life. But see the Note (h) No 15. Sect. V. Vol. I. That the soul cannot be the result of an individual disposition of matter; nor therefore a right disposition; nor therefore, a fortioni, of a wrong disposition; nor therefore, at last, of any disposition; as also the Note at (f) No 17. ibid. concerning the notion of a power not permanent and inherent in any subject, but constantly generated, constantly dying, existing by momentary parts, &c. Lucretius himself owns that the soul doth not sleep with the body, and that sleep is not an affection of the whole man, as Mr. Locke seems to think. He says,

Nec ratione aliâ, cum somnus membra profudit, Mens animi vigilat; nisi quòd simulacra lacessunt Hæc eadem nostros animos, quæ, quòm vigicamus Usque adeò certè ut videamur cernere eum, quem Reddita vitaï jam mors, & terra potita'st.

Lib. IV. ver. 761.

This is remarkable enough in one who afferts material fouls. After this, it must be in vain, one would think, for latter Writers to go about to deny, or diminish this appearance; as in many cases they endeavour to do.

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fame time. And these impressions must be perceived; for the soul is still active and percipient; and its perceptivity is now no other way solicited by any thing external. And the register of former impressions being sealed up from its view, these new impressions must be perceived without memory of what hath passed before: and therefore they must be perceived as caused by real external objects, such as usually make impressions upon the sensory. This seems the rationale of the phænomenon in general, as has been already remarked (d); and according to this, we

(d) This, if impartially confidered, feems to account naturally and fairly, for the necessary want of memory in our sleep; which is the circumstance sceptical men chiefly insist upon, as arguing the greatest impersection in the soul; tho' I have shewn before the wise and necessary end attained by thus hindering the soul to act, either by itself, or in conjunction with the body, in the time of sleep and rest. Lucretius himself is far from making this an imputation on the soul. On the contrary, observing that it could never be an argument for him, he employs his whole address to make it appear consistent with a material soul. He says, immediately after the words last cited,

Hoc ideo fieri cogit natura, quod omnes Corporis affecti fenfus per membra quiescunt,

find fuch impressions are really made, and perceived with such qualifications; infomuch that the foul hath little, if any ceffation, at least in some persons, from such representations. A set of new objects is immediately presented to it, and that succeeded by another, and that still by another, with greater variety and latitude of nature, than what it perceives by the in-let of the fenses; for a new creation of things, of different species. and other natures, really beyond the licence of the Painter or the Poet's imagination, is now offered to it, or forced upon it. It must be owned this is a strange phænomenon, and appears to be altogether unaccountable. But it is a real phænomenon; and, I think, much as I have here represented it; and certainly it must have some real cause. And it feems contrary to reason, that the

Nec possunt falsum veris convincere rebus.

Præterea meminisse jacet, languétque sopore,

Nec dissentit, eum mortis letique potitum

Jam pridem, quem mens vivum se cernere credit.

Lib. IV. ver. 767.

Indeed the memory was by all means to be made dependent on a corporeal fenfory, to restrain the activity of the soul; that it might not become a different person, and that the body might have time for reparation. more furprizing and strange a phænomenon is, the less the cause that produces it should be, or the less worth enquiring into; though this be the general opinion in the present case.

III. In order to fearch out the cause and origin of this appearance, I shall first endeavour to shew that it is not produced by the foul itself; however some may infinuate, rather than feem quite ignorant, that it is the sport of the sleeping fancy, the extravagance of imagination, or some such general thing, which hath no meaning, will not bear an examination, and is in truth contradictory. The foul, as hath been shewn, is forced to abandon its working on the fenfory, which is the feat of these impressions, because of the expence of animal spirits necessary to keep the former impressions patent, or to produce new ones. We know by experience, that the fatigue of continuing to do this is intolerable. The animal spirits must be recruited, and of consequence the sensory must be shut up, and the soul leave off acting upon it: and it is inconfistent to think that the foul should be forced to cease working upon the fenfory this minute, and the next minute begin that work again. We are convinced from our own consciousness in this case, that the soul must finally quit all attempts of this kind, before sleep can be brought on; and yet it is often engaged in a dream before we are well fallen asleep; fo that we may trace back the perceptions of the foul in these confines between sleeping and waking, but shall not find it designing to amuse itself, but rather suddenly engaged in beholding things, it knows not how. The foul, it is true, is always active and percipient, or is never without some real perception; but it is most certain it ceases to act and perceive by the body. It might as well employ itself in constant contemplation in the time of fleep, and thinking something regular and useful, as in these odd, whimfical scenes: and yet it hath been shewn above, No 13. Sect. V. Vol. I. that it cannot do this. Nor is the Soul indulgent to act by itself, and separately, so as to be a different Person, for reasons there likewise given: nor yet would this be acting by it/elf, but on the fenfory. Befides, it is inconceivable what the foul could defign by these extravagances,

extravagances, always deceiving, and often terrifying itself: no one can have a notion of the poffibility of this. In a word, to contend that the foul may still act on the fenfory, and produce those scenes of vision in it, is to forget what it was that forced it to fuspend its acting on the material organ; and to suppose likewise that it would farigue itself madly, without any view or purpose, when it might rather imploy itself in something profitable, or at least pleasant. These reasons, drawn from what hath been already faid, feem to shew with a great deal of evidence, that the foul doth not form, and present to itself those scenes. But to proceed to others.

IV. The actions of the foul must always be accompanied with a consciousness that they are produced by it, as being effected by the will. To say the soul acts without willing the action, hath been shewn in Sect. IV. Vol. I. to be repugnant: and since willing is one species of consciousness, or thinking; not to be conscious of our own willing, is not to be conscious of our own consciousness. Constant action and constant thinking require constant willing:

willing: but if we could will constantly, without knowing that we willed, we might act and think constantly without knowing that we acted and thought, and consciousness would be a contradictory notion. Whence it is not only easy to know whether we ourselves produce an action, or some other Being, but impossible not to know it. And in the present case we have still this farther degree of certainty, that the action or effect is not produced by the soul, but by something else; because it is forced upon the mind violently: the mind suffers and is made uneasy by it, and would sain avoid being conscious of it, if it were in its power.

V. Now common experience assures us, that most of those representations, which are offered to the soul in sleep, are not only not produced by it, since it hath no consciousness of any act of the will to introduce them; but that they are involuntarily intruded upon it. It hears, sees, and feels objects at that time, not as it would itself, but such as they are made appear to it; and is just as passive in receiving these impressions, as it would be in receiving the like impressions from

real external objects, by means of the fenfes, when broad awake; shewing as much backwardness to them, and suffering as much from them; awaking fometimes with trembling, sweating, and crying; and as much fatigued by night with fuch visions, as with labour and toil by day. I fay, this is common experience; and there is nothing more ordinary, than to be made to fancy, immediately after we fall afleep, that we are placed on some dreadful height, or precipice, or in some slippery dangerous station, where we are in hazard of falling, or are actually tumbling down. The apprehensions from this vifionary danger are as great as they could be from the reality of the thing represented; for the danger appears real. We awake with a flart, or cry; are glad to find ourselves in safety, and the precipice vanished (e). The recovering our waking me-

mory,

(e) Lucretius is full in most of these places; and at least doth not dissemble the circumstances, nor contradict the experience of mankind. At Ver. 1009. of Lib. 4. he says,

Multi depugnant, gemitusque doloribus edunt; Et quasi pantheræ morsu, sævique leonis Mandantur, magnis clamoribus omnia complent.

Multi

mory, and the reviving the real impressions from external objects, formerly lodged in the brain, disturbs these scenes; and so brings us back to our former state, and rescues us from our uneafiness (f). Instances of this kind are as various as frequent: fometimes we are threatened in fleep, from a strange and

Multi de magnis per somnum rebu' loquuntur, Indicioque sui facti persæpe fuere: Multi mortem obeunt; multi de montibus altis Se quasi præcipitent ad terram corpore toto Exterrentur, & ex fomno, quasi mentibu' capti, Vix ad se redeunt, permoti corporis astu.

(f) Here I may refer to the experience of most men. if ever they were fensible of greater pleasure, than sometimes when they have awakened out of a dream, and found that it was not real. It is indeed in these cases, like awaking from mifery to happiness, and from death to life. A circumstance which but ill agrees with the opinion, that the foul forms, and presents those troublesom appearances to itself. And sometimes the impressions are fo lasting, and the images so lively, that it is with difficulty we can perfuade ourselves, after we are awakened, that the things we faw were not real. The reason of this feems to be, that the impressions are so strong, and have so thoroughly possessed the mind with a belief of the reality of the things represented, that it is some time before they can be worn out, or the mind recover itself from the aftonishment it was in.

ugly confluence of waters; sometimes from frightful and merciless animals, sometimes we are carried to desert and inhospitable places (g), or placed in other disagreeable, shocking, and unnatural circumstances. Now undoubtedly, in these and such other instances, it is absurd to say the foul would lay a plot to frighten itself, and then be foolishly in real terror with its own defigns. To make this succeed, it ought to be two distinct Beings, each ignorant of the other's consciousness and designs; and the whole compounded foul be diverted with the contrivance on the one hand, and yet terrified with the execution of it on the other. These are the most common instances; there are others vastly more strange and surprizing, but equally certain: but in them all the foul must neceffarily be paffive and unconcerned in the production; fince, that it should act with-

(g) Virgil fays of Dido,

-----Agit ipse furentem

In somnis ferus Æneas: semperque relinqui Sola sibi; semper longam incomitata videtur Ire viam, & Tyrios desertà quærere terrà.

Æneid. lib. IV. ver. 465.

This place hath a beauty, which nothing but the imitating nature could have given it.

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out defigning to act, or defign to act without knowing it defigned, or know that it defigned the action, and yet be terrified at it, is inconceivable.

VI. To this may be added, that many of these scenes are above the power and work-manship of the soul itself (b); so that it could

(h) That cause which exhibits the vision to the soul in sleep, seems to have a great power over it in other respects. Sometimes we are made to think that we are siying aloft in the air; sometimes we are struck with seeblenes, that we cannot sly from an enemy, who seems to pursue us. We are dejected, elevated, and affected all manner of ways, which one would never ascribe to the soul itself. This is touching it another way than by barely exhibiting of vision. But that which is most surprizing shall be mentioned toward the end of the section.

Some of the circumstances of our dreams mentioned here, are well observed by the most natural fort of Philosophers; the *Poets*, I mean. *Homer*, speaking of *Hector*'s slying before *Achilles*, and *Achilles* pursuing him, uses the following comparison.

*Δις δ' ἐν ὀνείεω οὐ δυναθαι φευΓονθα διώπει», "Ουτ' ἄξ' ὁ τὰν δύναθαι ὑποφέυΓειν, οὐ Β' ὁ διώπειν" "Ως ὁ τὸν οὐ δύναθο μάςψαι σοσίν, οὐδ' ὁς ἀλυξαι.

Iliad. x. ver. 199.

And Taffo after him yet more fully,

Come vede tal' her terbidi fegni
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could not produce them, though it were willing, (for those, who are for material fouls, and mechanical dreams, will not, I fuppose, allow that it hath greater powers and faculties then, than when awake; and those on the other side, who are for exalting the powers of the foul at that juncture, cannot expect their affertion will be allowed them, unless they could bring good proof): but omitting this, I shall only name another, and that a very fatisfying confideration, which plainly shews these representations to be the work of Agents distinct from the foul: namely, That whatever part the foul itself acts, when these things are offered to it, as it always acts some part or other, either for its own relief and defence, if the object offered is uneafy, or appears to have bad defigns upon it; or if pleasant and friendly, in concurring and forwarding the effect, fince

Nc' brevi sonni suoi l'Egro, ò l'Insano,
Pargli, ch' al corso avidamente agogni
Stender le membra, e che s' affanni in vano,
Che ne' maggiori sforzi, à' suoi besogni
Non corrisponde il piè stanco, e la mano.
Scioglier tal' hor la lingua, e parlar vuole;
Ma non seguon la voce, ò le parole.

Cant. 20. Stanz. 105.

it doth not lose the principle of self-preservation, or felf love; I fay, whatever part it acts, it is conscious of its own acting, and that this action is of its own willing and production. And the memory of its acting thus, in refifting or concurring, it distinctly retains afterward, when awakened. Thus if we dream that we are converfing with any person, or doing any thing with them in consequence of that conversation; we are conscious enough what fentences in the conversation we ourselves speak, and what actions we do: and there is the same distinction and difference of consciousness, betwixt our words and actions, and theirs, as if the whole transaction had passed between them and us while we were awake. This shews us clearly, I conceive, that the foul is not the productive cause, in contriving and offering these scenes first to itself. Indeed it would be a slippery principle to allow, that in fleep the foul acted both parts, while it were only conscious that it acted but one: the notion of consciousness would be rendered inconfistent, as I said just now; or the certainty of consciousness and intuition would, I think, be invalidated: the case might be translated to our waking thoughts, C 2

thoughts, and fomething more urged, than D. Berkley hath contended for, (he allows that those Ideas, which the foul is not conscious of exciting in itself, are excited in it by some other thing, though not the thing that we imagine) and that kind of Scepticism called Egomism, would have a new argument to support it. Let reasonable Men weigh these considerations (i).

Aristotle, when he gives a definition of a dream, is very explicit in making it only extend to what the foul is not active in: and fince he is on the other fide of the question, as was faid, it cannot be unfair to take his account; and really any confidering person will find it to be very agreeable to nature. He makes the dream only the φανλάσμα, the appearance, vision, or thing represented, arifing from the motions excited in the fenfory, or brain, (k); and explains feveral other

concomitant

⁽i) These considerations are suggested here, because of a doubt started against the Argument in this paragraph; of which below.

⁽k) 'Αλλα' τὸ φανλάσμα τὸ ἀπὸ τῆς κινήσεως τῶν αἰσ-ອີກຸມລ່າພາ, όταν ἐν τῷ καθεύδειν ἡ, ਜ καθεύδει, τῆτ ἔςιν ειθπνιου. lib. de infomniis, cap. 3. He hath taken pains before

concomitant circumstances, that cannot properly be called dreaming: especially this, that during such representations, the soul hath some very right notions, and makes true conclusions, which are not to be included in the vision, or made a distinct faculty from its waking reason (1): and that it proceeds so far in its exactness sometimes, as to be conscious that the things represented to it are but illusions (m); which it should never not do, one would think, if it produced these illusions itself. And he distinguishes the genuine operations of the soulitself, from what it is merely passive in beholding, by camparing our sleeping with our waking state; in

before to distinguish from the Passaspa, all circumstances that might be mistaken for it.

(m) Καὶ ότε με, η δόξα λέγει ότι ψείδο το δεωμενον, ώσπες εγεποιός ότε δε, καθεχείαι καὶ ἀκολυθεῖ τῷ φανίασμαζε. Ibid. cap. 1.

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which, together with our being passive in receiving the impressions of external objects through the fenses, we are also active and bufy in thinking of them (n). And certainly in dreaming it is fo; it is far from being true that the foul then is only percipient, exclusive of being active; for it is just as active as it would be in like circumstances, when the person is awake. Perhaps it was the confideration of its being thus busied then, that hath made fome men inadvertently affert, that it produces every thing feen, or heard, in fleep, unknown to itself; having nothing readier to fay. This was the Epicurean folution of dreams, as I shall have oc-But the difcasion to observe hereafter. ference here marked, made Aristotle reject that account as abfurd; and although Democritus's είδωλα avoided this abfurdity, yet he rejects that also for other reasons. And generally they all reject one another's accounts as unfatisfying: whence it appears there is reason for rejecting them all. Moreover, if

⁽n) "Ετι παρά τὸ ἐνύπνιον, ἐννοῦμεν ἀλλό τι, καθάπες ἐν τῷ ἐξηΓορέναι αἰσθανόμενοί τι' περὶ δυ γὰς αἰσθανόμεθα, πολλάκις καὶ διανεύμεθά τι' ὅυθω καὶ ἐν τοῖς ὕπνοις, παρὰ τὰ φαθάσμαθα, ἐνίοθε ἄλλα ἐννοῦμεν, Φανείη δ' ἀν τῷ τῦτο, ἔι τις προσέχοι τὸν νοῦν, καὶ πειρῦτο μνημονεύειν ἀναςάς. Ibid.

as we go along, we cast our eyes upon these feveral particulars observed by Aristotle, and examine well in what the foul is only active, we shall not find it so irrational and inconfistent as is generally presumed. It is very inaccurate, to ascribe all the wild representations, that are involuntarily forced upon the foul, and which, as was faid in Sect. V. Vol. I. (No 10 to 13.) it is under a necessity of perceiving, to the foul itself, and then infinuate that it owes the perfection of rational thinking to matter. Whereas I think it is more philosophical to fay, that if the soul were not united to a material fenfory, where these impressions are made, it could not have fuch scenes obtruded upon it: and if its activity were not clogged by the indisposition of matter, so as to hinder its bringing its past perceptions back to view, (see No 11 and 13. Ibid.) it would be no more liable to be imposed on then, than at other times.

VII. As these representations cannot be effected by the foul itself, because it is as undefigning, passive, and involuntary, as it could be in feeing the same disagreeable objects while awake; fo they are such as re-

quire a living, defigning, and intelligent cause to produce them. Thus when one dreams (still to take a common, or at least, an instance no way extraordinary) that a man purfues him with a drawn fword, and withall threatens him, in words, the found of which he plainly hears, and the fense of which he plainly understands; it is as impossible that these impressions can be made on the fenfory, and these ideas excited in the foul, by any thing but a living intelligent cause, as it is that consciousness and spontaneity should belong to any thing but such a cause. Here is design, life, action; articulate words importing connected ideas, and those ideas excited in the foul; and all involuntary as to it.—And now let a man think closely upon this appearance; let him try his invention to make out another cause, if he can, confistently with all that is shewn before in these papers. But let him also take this caution along with him: That philosophy doth not hinder him from finding a cause that can do more than produce the effect; though it strictly prohibits him to assign one that cannot do fo much: and a free caufe doth not always act to the extent of its power;

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nor will the effect appear so despicable, if narrowly examined. The only causes (exclusive of an intelligent cause) that can be named, are either chance, or the mechanism of the Body; since it hath been shewn, that the foul itself is not this cause. But it is fcarce to be supposed that any body, understanding the import of those two words, could affert that either of them was the cause. of such an appearance. Chance, as hath been faid, is only a word which we make use of, when we are ignorant of the true cause, whether intelligent or mechanical; as when an effect is produced through a train of causes too long for us to see the beginning of, or where the dependence lyes too deep for us to find out. But to suppose chance a real, efficient cause, or some positive agent, subfisting by itself, blind and unintelligent, doing it knows not what, nor how; and yet producing effects, where there is defign, and an end proposed, and this end attained by just, natural, and compendious means, is to dress up a contradiction in our own mind, and to give it a name, It is not only to make the cause act above its power; but it is to feign a cause, and give

it an imaginary power, where there is none at all (0). As to the mechanism of the body, or any other mechanical and necessary cause, it is the most incompetent of all others. (See from No 12. of Sect. II. Vol. I.) This could never account for the life, the action, the variety, observable in the appearance of dreaming; nay for the fentiments, the reafoning in many instances. The impressions then would be determined, and invariable, without life and diversity; just the opposites of what they are. The furprizing and really endless diversity, seems designed on purpose to exclude the fixt, unalterable measures of mechanism: and the defign, life, and spontaneity, to exclude any blind, or furd efficient. If mechanism could produce a consciousness and reasoning, different from that of the foul itself, as is the case where we seem to converse with others in sleep; it might produce the consciousness and reasoning in our foul: For shewing how absurd this is, how far it would put an end to all rational en-

quiries

⁽ο) Lucian himself says, — Είμαςμένη καὶ τύχη ἀνυπός αλα, καὶ κενὰ τῶν πεωιμάτων ὀνόμαλα, ὑπὸ βλακῶν ἀντερώπων, τῶν φιλοσόφων, ἐπινοηθέντα. Deor. concil. It is true he joins in ἀερετὰ, that he may not confess a truth gratis.

quiries whatfoever, I refer not only to the place just before named, but to the beginning of Sect. V. Vol. I. Allow but thus much to the Sceptick, and he will defy all the Philosophers that ever lived, to establish one certain truth in philosophy, or to infer any higher cause of appearances, than what Lucretius has affigned. And are not men aware how much they abet the atheistical scheme by arguing thus? Lucretius was much more clear-fighted, who was justly afraid of this phænomenon. Though mechanism is now become a learned word; is it any more than only one particle of matter's being impelled by another, as they refift each of them a change of their state; and that still by another, until we come to the particle first moved? And the oftener the motion is thus communicated, the first impressed quantity of it necessarily becomes the less, if it be not kept up to the first height by an extraneous Power. And how stupendous doth the multiplicity of the action of the first cause appear to be, in constantly maintaining the mechanism of our bodies! If matter then cannot keep up mechanical motion in itself; can it rise to perfection infinitely excelling both

both in degree and kind? If it were matter that spoke the threatning words in the prefent instance, and performed the consequent threatning gestures; that is, if it made those impressions on the sensory that excite these appearances in the foul, would he be much in the wrong, who should fay, matter thought and reasoned? I rather think he would not. If we should either suppose that the sensory makes these impressions on itself, or that the animal Spirits combine to impinge on it in fuch order, or that the blood, as it circulates, stops, or accelerates itself so, as to perform all this; or lastly, that these several things conspire together to mimick life and fpontaneous motion; in all these suppositions, every thing is inconceivable, abfurd, impossible. It was observed before, that if the mechanism were simple, we should expect no great things from it; but if it be very complicated, we think it not impossible for it to become a power to itself: and yet this is a grievous prejudice, for all the reafon is on the contrary fide. A complicated piece of mechanism wants, if possible, a power more, as more of the impressed motion is constantly consumed. And after this

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it can ill be alledged, that mechanism is the cause of the present appearance. And if it cannot be the effect of a cause working mechanically; it follows that it must be produced by a living, intelligent cause: as was afferted (p).

VIII. We

(p) I beg leave, before I proceed, to take notice here of a difficulty in my way, and the rather, as it proceeds on a common prejudice, which men are but too apt to dwell on, and take only a curfory glance of what is faid against them. It is asked, "May not a peccant or re-"dundant fluid in the body, be the occasion of the foul's exerting its operations in an irregular or difagreeable manner? And may not the want of what is necessary so for our fustenance occasion the foul's raising delusory 66 fcenes in the imagination? May not a hungry man of dream that he eats at a full table, or a thirsty man 66 that he drinks plentifully, without the active interof position of some separate spirit?"—A fluid, whether peccant or regular, is only a multitude of fluggish. inert particles, that cannot move themselves, or, if moved, cannot change their direction; but equally refift a change of state as well in motion, as in rest. Therefore the least approach to spontaneity cannot be expected from them. This feems decifive. Peccancy is but a defeet; if a right disposition of dead particles can do nothing arifing to life and action, a wrong disposition can much less do it. (See the Note (b) Sect. V. Vol. I.) That the peccancy of a fluid may be the occasion of the foul's VIII. We may also be satisfied, that it is such a cause from this consideration, that if

foul's exerting its operations, in an irregular or difagreeable manner, is an equivocal way of speaking. It may be an impediment or hindrance to the foul to exert its operations regularly; but it cannot be the occasion that the foul should act without knowing that it acts; should form a living spectre to fright and terrify itself; should pronounce words, and think another pronounced them; in short, should not be conscious of its own consciousness. The blood, the ferum, the brain, the fenfory, &c. are all but dead matter: we have feen that it requires the constant action of an immaterial power, to move them mechanically, and to keep up that motion in them. If these fluids, or fixt parts, could perform any thing above mechanism, or be the cause of the present appearance: would not the fame reason, that obliged us to allow the mechanical power, oblige us also to allow another spontaneous power? If this was a just inference in a like case above (Sect. II. Vol. I.) it cannot be wrong here. There is the fame reason for rejecting the living powers of dead matter, with respect to the fluids, or fixt parts of the body, as with respect to other matter. How unwillingly we quit a prejudice of an old flanding! and yet, I think, it must be parted with. A plant doth not grow, a stone fall downward, without a foreign impulse: can matter then sport and divert itself, mimick all the appearances of life and reason, while we sleep, as Lucretius supposes? Or can it lay the foul under an enchantment,

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a real man, whom every one allows to be a living, intelligent cause, such as is represented

chantment, so that it should perform a thousand tricks and gambols, surprizing in all respects; and still think another cause performs all? To be not conscious of its own consciousness, is an undeniable contradiction; it is to have and not to have consciousness at the same time. Is not this a firm enough principle to build the conclusion upon, that the soul is not productive of what is obtruded upon it? It is sufficiently conscious of resisting, instead of forwarding what is thus forced upon it; lest we should say, that it may forget what passes at that time.

But this, it is faid, is a low occupation for separate spirits to be concerned in. But if they do perform this, who can help it? What if this be but a prejudice of ours? Hath not every the most despicable reptile, insect, animalcule, an immaterial foul joined to it; Is not this as low an occupation, to be confined to move thefe atoms? What if it be an occupation that requires the exertion of much power and knowledge? Or is there a fcarcity of living immaterial Beings? Have we any other thing to prove this, than our own suppositions? Why so much dead matter, without living immaterial substances in proportion? Or are they all of equal dignity, equally highly employed? Who told us so? We should perhaps find out other business for living Beings: But we are not the contrivers in this affair, but the God of nature. Is there a necessity of interesting separate spirits in every frivolous trifling scene that is offered to the soul in sleep?

fented to us in our fleep, purfued us while awake, with fuch a weapon in his hand and uttering

Why not! Every scene, how frivolous and trifling soever, is a real phanomenon in nature, and must be produced by some adequate cause. Philosophy doth not regard how far appearances deviate from our rules: but confiders them as they are. The necessity is, that we must ascribe this effect to a cause that hath power to produce it, or to dead matter, which we are fure hath no fuch power at all. Let any one chuse. This conclusion is a consequence of the inactivity of matter. Take a parallel instance. Gravity is a constant immaterial impulse exerted upon all matter fluid as well as solid. What fo trifling, frivolous, unregarded phænomenon is there in nature, as the irregular motions and furface of running water, or of the fea waves? But let philosophy account for this, without the constant action of the very first and highest Being. It ill becomes us to set so high a value upon those beings, when the power of the highest Being is subservient to those offices in the animal œconomy which we think vileft. Or are we afraid of renouncing altogether the active powers of inactive matter; or of acknowledging too much life and power in nature? I am fure we shall never free our philosophy from absurdity, till we have rectified our notions in this respect. Let us reflect that bare spontaneity of motion is an appearance, that makes us allow an immaterial mover in creatures that have not the least vestige of reason in their actions. Purfue this hint. Every one will allow an extraordinary cause of some certain dreams that are moniuttering fuch threatning words; the fame, and no other impressions, would be made on the

tory, or fignificant of some future event. This is right, if these instances are well vouched: but, I think, this is not fo much the business of natural Philosophy; at least it is not the design of this Essay. However those who come thus far (and even Hobbes comes thus far, Aristotle farther) have got over all that is difficult; fince they allow what is contended for, in some cases, and at some times. And what is ordinary, can as little want a fufficient cause, as what is rare. I own, I know nothing concerning the conditions and circumstances of these separate Agents; and I contend for no hypothesis. Every one may make an hypothesis for himself. Some have been made for time immemorial: men may chuse of these what pleases them best. I only contend for the agency of separate living Agents in the present phænomenon, in opposition to the powers of matter and mechanisin; since the foul itself in many cases could not, and in others certainly doth not exhibit the scenes to itself; and of consequence I infer that such Agents must exist. And this by the same kind of argument, that I infer, from the appearance of gravity, that a Being must exist to give that constant impression to matter.

I cannot agree that the want of fustenance, or any other want, should be the occasion of the soul's raising delusory scenes in the imagination; though it may be the occasion of another Being's doing this. The imagination, if it be taken as distinct from the power of the soul itself, must be the sensory where the impressions

the fenfory, and the fame ideas excited in the foul, as by this visionary person in the dream.

are made. That the foul should make impressions here. to delude itself, is not to be conceived. If imagination be taken as fomething belonging to the foul; it is its own active power of voluntarily joining ideas together, without objects ab extra to cause them. That it should couple together ideas by this active power, without being conscious of its own workmanship, is as little to be conceived; and if it were conscious of this, the scene would not appear offered to it as real. In the example of eating or drinking, we are to distinguish with Aristotle, what the foul itself doth, from the parlaopa, or fcene exhibited. The foul as much exerts an act of the will, to eat or drink, as it does at another time; and unless it thought the meat and drink were real, it would not exert this act of the will. This part then of exhibiting the appearance of real meat and drink to it, is the phantasm, nothing of its own production. But this is always accompanied with other circumstances of persons, actions, &c. that make the thing plainer. We do not dream that we fimply eat and drink, without the circumstances of time, place, company [at a full table, it is faid in the objection.] A late excellent Author hath well observed, that the foul would be much distressed, if it dreamed that it were always folitary and lonely in fleep. Dido's being alone in her last visions was an aggravation of the uneafiness. Motion then, life, action, persons, are not the effects of mechanism. And though in this instance the foul doth not refist, but concurs in

the

dream. So that we must either deny the man, who pursues us while awake, to be a living, intelligent cause; or allow the cause which excites the same ideas in our soul while we sleep, to be, at least, equally living and intelligent. For though the same effect may be produced by different causes; yet, the effect being the same, the causes must be equally powerful and perfect in the production of it, whatever inequality may be between them upon other accounts. If this be not so, where can we stop in doubting or denying?

IX. If we should see, while awake, the picture of a man holding a drawn sword, in a piece of arras; we should conclude, without the necessity of arguments to compel us,

the representation (which, I suppose, is the main ground of thinking it the productive cause of the whole) so that the argument in N° 5. will not be applicable; yet there is the same difference and distinction of consciousness, betwixt what the soul itself doth, and what the persons in the vision seem to do, as between the Objector's raising the present scruple, and my endeavouring to solve it. Whence the argument in N° 6. comes up to it. The Notion of consciousness would otherwise be consounded; and the evidence drawn from it, weakened.

D 2

that

that this was the work of some Artist, some living, intelligent cause, that knew how ro work after his own idea, or at least after a copy fet him. And if we faw farther a fentence woven, as proceeding out of the mouth of this picture, and were fure that it were of the Artist's own design and composure; we could not help concluding that he understood that language. But if it were possible for him to make his picture move; give it life and action; and make it pronounce this fentence audibly, as if the Artist himself had pronounced it; or it may be more fentences than one; and if he could fo contrive, that the motions, countenance, and thefe words of the picture, should all concur to one uniform purpose and design, so as naturally to represent the actions, words, &c. of a living man; we should then not only conclude that the contriver of this was a living intelligent cause, but highly admire his art and skill, as far surpassing any thing we ourselves could pretend to; if not suspect that fomething of a supernatural Power had affisted him. Nor would it lessen the wonder of this performance, or be a reason to deny the knowledge and invention of the contriver,

contriver, though some unthinking Peasant beheld it with as much indifference, as if there were nothing remarkable in it. This instance nearly enough resembles the case in. hand, the scene of vision in our sleep. But because such appearances are frequent, we let them pass unheeded: though the intelligence, and power of the cause that produces them, is not the less, whether we consider them, or suffer them to pass without reflexion. Things that are too much above our reach, and ordinary way of thinking, generally pass as little regarded by us, as things that are trifling: witness the wonderful power of the Deity, constantly exerted through the material universe; the vicissitude of night and day, &c. An object, to engage our attention, must have something of our own littleness in it. And yet, which is remarkable, the generality of mankind have been led to the true cause of the phænomenon we have been confidering, by hearkning to natural and unbiaffed fense; while learning and philosophy have made others mistake it altogether; some without hesitation afferting contradictions, and others not gain-faying them. To refine in a plain D 3 case.

case, is to misapply learning. Atheism could never otherwise have commenced. As has been said in a like case before, when speaking of a stone's falling down to the Earth; if a man dreamt only but once a year, how much more would the rare phænomenon be attended to? The night would be expected with impatience, and all the circumstances marked with care. With how much more solicitude, may we think, do those, upon whom the sun rises after some months absence, expect the glorious sight, than we upon whom it rises once in twenty sour hours, who neither regard the rising or setting of it? But is there any reason for this?

X. The instance above, of a man with a drawn sword, &c. which I have here pitched upon, and argued from, is plain and simple, and hath nothing in it extraordinary. Whereas almost every man's own experience will suggest to him, or his suture observation will soon surnish him with examples, of seeing in his sleep more variety of circumstances, and a longer series of action than is here mentioned. And observation and experience, with reslexion on the particulars,

are that which will best convince: nor is it eafy to conceive that any should want thus much experience, when the Authors who maintain mechanical dreams, and material fouls, give much more furprizing instances (as will appear below) fuch as pleading at the bar, fighting, &c. though I defignedly avoided arguing from fuch examples. But this instance before us, simple as it is, or though it had been more fimple; nay though it had happened only to one man, and that but once; provided we could have been certain that it had happened once, and was fairly related, must justify all that is inferred from it here, or defigned to be inferred. An effect, though it be but once produced, as certainly infers the existence of the cause that produced it, and as necessarily concludes that this cause must have had power, and perfection enough to produce it, as if it had been repeated ever so often. For if a contradiction could be once effected, by a cause's producing an effect above its power, nothing could hinder it from being effected any number of times. But as it is, such instances are numberless, and as different from each other, as the persons to whom they are represented,

or the times in which they are represented to the fame person; and it is looked upon as uncommon, if the same man hath the same representation twice offered to him: a circumstance that well agrees with the cause affigned; but no way with mechanism, or any other thing that could be named. If therefore we confider the almost infinite variety of fuch scenes, which are either offered to the foul in fleep, or violently obtruded upon it; the fentiments, and reason in many of them, the spontaneity and life in most of them, infomuch that there is fcarce any production in art or nature, commonly reckoned wonderful, that cannot be parallel'd in some one or other of these instances; not to mention the deviation from the present natures of things, which must still appear more wonderful to us, if we are right judges, as will appear by going on: and if we join all these together, we must agree, that whatever kind of reasoning, or argument, shews that the works of art are the works of living defigning Beings; or even that this great frame of visible things, is the effect of a living, intelligent, powerful cause, will in some degree be applicable to them, to shew that the

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the cause which produces them, must be living and intelligent (q); and that if these are not the effects of a cause that hath life, knowledge and contrivance, we must for ever lose the distinction between the actions of such a cause, and of a mechanical, necessary cause, nor pretend in any other case whatsoever, to determine by the effect, of what kind the cause is. For, as has been said, allow the Sceptick but thus much, that such an instance of life, action, and design, is effected by the temerarious, surd jumble of dead atoms; and he knows not how to use his advantage, if he cannot defy all the men in the world to establish upon

(q) It is only here meant that this argument is of the fame nature, and concludes upon the fame account, as the arguments a posteriori, for a wise and powerful cause of the visible effects in the material world; though not of the fame force and conviction. And yet if it could be shewn, that but so much as the instance here assigned, were possible to be effected, without a designing, living cause, it is not conceivable that any thing could be a more convenient introduction to the fiercest, the Epicurean Atheism. If the principle, that the effect cannot be perfecter than its cause, could fail in this appearance of dreams, no man can tell how far it might fail in all the parts of philosophy. All truth stands, or falls together.

him the necessity of any wife and defigning cause in nature. To apply Galen's reasoning, with respect to the contrivance and mechanism of the animal body, to the present case; What can be the effect of a cause, working with defign and knowledge, if the instance assigned above, and numberless such others, be the effects of blind chance, or mechanical necessity? It is impossible to answer this question in either case. For the effects of the first must be of a quite different nature from those of the last: or, the effects of a living, intelligent cause must have no marks of defign and contrivance in them. This is to change the natures of things; or else to fpeak by way of contradiction. What would one conclude (to give another very applicable parallel) if he fometimes faw a Musician play on an instrument; and by and by heard the fame tunes, and even a greater variety of them, played over on the fame instrument, when no visible Artist was near? The fenfory is the instrument, which is fometimes moved by the action of external, living objects; and in darkness and silence, the same way moved, or with far greater latitude, and compass of notes, those objects being

being all removed. Indeed to exhibit words and fense requires by far the most artificial touch of musick; as to exhibit scenes of life and real motion, is the hardest kind of painting.

XI. This is, I think, the genuine and natural folution of this appearance; not liable to any absurdity or even difficulty, with which other methods of accounting for it are pressed; as I hope will be made appear. These seem to lye on those, who ascribe the effects of life and action to dead matter. And for this reason it is afferted, that there are living Beings existing separate from matter; that they act in that state; that they act upon the matter of our bodies, and prompt our fleeping visions. Matter, in the philosophy of many, has usurped the power of the living God, the power of the human foul, and the power of all other living and intelligent causes: And if reason throws it out in the two first cases, it is hard to say, why it should not in the last. It is a sluggish, inert substance in all cases equally; inactivity, and refistance to a change of its state, being inseparable from it. If once we allow

allow of an infinitely powerful and perfect Author of the Universe, the very proportion and reason of things would make us vehemently suspect, that there cannot be so much dead substance, and so few living Beings created in it. All from brute-matter to the foul of Man, is a curious and wonderful scale of perfection, rising by easy steps; but, certainly, the human foul cannot be the perfectest living creature; unembodied spirits should not, one would think, make a mean part of a rational creation, but rather by much the most considerable part. It may also be supposed, that the higher orders of these Beings may be employed in things proportionable to their nature and perfections; but not to speak more of that, the existence of inferior species is evident, I think, from the present phænomenon. This seems the natural lesson we should draw from it; for, as was faid, God and Nature do nothing for no end, or for a bad end; only to stumble men: it's an argument against Atheism, and the Atheist himself is terrified at it. Others might have reasoned on this subject from other topicks; and perhaps better: But the theory as in this Essay, is a confequence

Phænomenon of Dreaming. 45 quence of the inertia of matter, which it would have been improper to have omitted.

XII. In establishing this conclusion, That our dreams are prompted by separate immaterial Beings, I endeavoured previously, or by way of a lemma, to shew that the Φαν ασμα, or what is properly called the vision, is not the work of the foul itself. This is thought exceptionable, and not evident enough to support the weight of fuch a conclusion: wherefore before I proceed farther, I shall endeavour to shew the truth of this principle. It is faid, "The foul itself is the productive " cause of all that we see in sleep, and that " from the change which happens to the " feat of memory during our fleep, we may " remember all the scenes of our sleeping i-" magination, and yet have no memory of " the foul's exerting an act of the will to i-" magine those scenes; just as in some disor-"ders of the brain, the memory is entirely " lost as to certain past actions, and yet pre-" ferved as to others." But, with fubmiffion, there is a great difference in these two cases; so that we cannot argue from a parity. After these disorders of the brain are

over, we do not remember that we acted one part in a conference, and that the other was involuntarily obtruded upon us; the memory only of certain of our past actions is entirely lost, as is faid: Whereas in dreams we clearly remember a part which we ourselves said or did, and as clearly remember another different part, which was forced upon us, or in acting which we had as little concern, as we have when another person says, or does like things to us while we are awake. And this alternate speaking and replying, or this difference, in our producing a part of the action, and another Agent's producing another part of it, is continued to fome length in certain instances, Now the particular that I infift upon is, not only that we do not remember that we ourselves acted fuch a responsory or opposite part; but that we remember the contrary. It is one thing to remember that I faid fo and fo to another person, not remembering the rest; and quite another to have such a clear distinction of memory as in the case before us, of what I faid to him, and he to me. In the first case there is a perfect forgetfulness of something; and in the other, a perfect remembrance of it with

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with a contrary circumstance; (viz. that not I myself, but another person, put the question, or did the action). I wish this were taken notice of. Thus this objection supposes that the soul forgets, not only its past thoughts, but its present thoughts, and that at the very time when they are present to it; which is a direct contradiction: nay, that it may have a consciousness that its present thoughts (while present) may be the thoughts of another Being; which increases the contradiction; and because a want of memory of our past thoughts is possible, it infers that a want of consciousness of our present thoughts is also possible; and farther, that we may be conscious that our present thoughts are not our present thoughts, but the thoughts of another person. Hence it appears the intended parallel is quite misapplied, because the simple forgetting a thing no way comes up to that clear distinction of memory and consciousness which we have in our dreams.

XIII. All this has been pretty fully expressed in the fixth paragraph above, where I have shewn that the soul can never be said

to produce that which it is conscious an= other Agent produces, without ruining and confounding all the evidence of felf-confcioufness. But that this point may be the more attended to, I will take a particular example and reason familiarly upon it; and I shall pitch on such an instance as can be liable to no suspicion. It is known that Cicero was professedly an Academick; and that he wrote defignedly in his treatife de Divinatione against this very conclusion which I maintain; and endeavoured to account for the appearance of dreaming the same way, as is done here in the objection. Cicero then being of this doubting feet, and writing on the opposite side of the question, tells us a dream of his own; which are circumstances, I think, that must free such an instance from any reasonable suspicion of credulity, or unfairness in the relation; and I shall give it in his own words. He brings in his brother Quintus managing the argument on the opposite part, and alledging his [Cicero's] dream against himself, as also another of his own [Quintus's]. I shall transcribe both. Quintus after having brought many other examples, some of which are remarkable enough; 3

enough; says, Sed quid vetera aut plura quærimus? Sæpe tibi meum narravi: sæpe ex te somnium audivi tuum. Me, cum Asiæ provinciæ præessem, vidisse in quiete, cum tu equo advectus ad quandam magni fluminis ripam, provectus subitò, atque delapsus in flumen, nusquam apparuisses, me contremuisse timore perterritum: Tum te repente lætum extitisse, eodémque equo adversam ascendisse ripam, nosque inter nos esse complexos. Facilis conjectura bujus somnii; mibique à peritis in Asiâ prædictum est, fore eos eventus rerum, qui acciderunt. This is Quintus's dream, which I shall not stay at present to argue from: any one who reads it will fee the marks of involuntary representation in it, or of its being forced upon him; and consequently which of the folutions is most applicable to it. Cicero's own dream follows. Venio nunc ad tuum (continues Quintus.) Audivi equidem ex teipso: sed mihi sæpius Sallustius noster narravit; cùm in illâ fugâ, nobis gloriosâ, patriæ calamitosa, in villa quadam campi Atinatis maneres, magnámque partem noctis vigilâsses, ad lucem denique aretè, & graviter dormitare cæpisse: itaque quamquam iter instaret, te tamen silentium sieri jussisse, neque VOL. II.

esse passum te excitari: cum autem experrectus esses horâ secundâ fere, te sibi somnium narravisse: Visum tibi esse, cum in locis solis mæstus errares, C. Marium cum fascibus Laureatis quærere exte, quid tristis esses? Cumque tu, te tuâ patriâ vi pulsum esse dixisses, præhendisse eum dextram tuam, & bono animo te justisseesse, Lictorique proximo tradidisse, ut te in monumentum suum deduceret: & dixisse, in eo tibi salutem fore. Tum & se exclamasse Sallustius narrat, reditum tibi celerem, & gloriosum paratum, & Teipsum visum somnio delectari. Nam illud mibi ipsi celeriter nuntiatum est, ut audivisses in monumento Marii de tuo reditu magnificentissimum illud S. C. esse factum, referente optimo & clarissimo viro, consule; idque frequentissimo theatro, incredibili clamore & plausu comprobatum: dixisse te, nibil illo Atinati somnio fieri posse divinius. De Divinat. lib. 1.

XIV. This is Cicero's dream, and as he tells it himself; whence it appears his Brother and he had often admired the particularity of it in their private discourses. For Cicero was prosecuted by Clodius, and forced to leave Rome in the forty-ninth year of his

age, to which expulsion this dream refers; and he lived fourteen or fifteen years after. And I dare fay when the thing itself happened, and afterward when the confequence foretold fell out accordingly, he ascribed it to quite another cause, than he does now in his academical Philosophy. But to apply the objection above to it. Here he remembers that a question was put to him; namely, Why he was so sad? and who put it; and what he himself replied, viz. That it was because he had been unjustly driven out of his native country. Now if he had put this question to himself, why should he have been made believe that Marius put it? Or why should he remember that he made the answer only; and not only forget that he asked himself the question (as the objection fuppofes) but remember it with a quite contrary, nay with an inconfistent circumstance; to wit, That another person asked it, and not he himself, which the objection does not confider? Or what powerful Demon can fo affect the consciousness of the soul in sleep, that it shall act two different, and opposite parts: and yet be not only not conscious of acting the one of them, but conscious of not acting

it; or of being passive, often involuntary, and of another Agent's producing it! This would bring in the agency of Spirits, in as wonderful a manner at least, as that which I contend for. No mechanical cause; nothing less than a powerful, living, defigning Being, could make the foul remember and forget so rationally, in such order.—A man only forgets what it is proper he should forget, so that two persons may be made out of one Agent! I feriously wonder how men can broach, or maintain such absurd fancies. Or lastly, upon Cicero's own Principles, That the foul itself produced the whole action, where had been the divinity of this particular vision, which Quintus says he found in it? Dixisse te, nihil illo Atinati somnio sieri posse divinius.——To say a dream is divine, is to fay it has a divine original: and to fay nothing could be more divine is yet a stronger affertion of some divine power exhibited. He should, confistently with his own notions, have inftantly recollected that there was nothing new or furprifing here. Which shews, as I observed just now, that the pregnancy of the instance, while recent, made him forget his academical

mical conclusion. Besides, Marius took him by the hand; bid him be of good courage; ordered one of his Lictors to take care of him and convey him into his own [Marius's] monument; and told him that his present troubles should be relieved, and he find safety there. Was all this, the Lictor; the taking him by the hand; and the exhortation to be of better courage, only the imposture of the foul itself to deceive itself? If at this rate we make but one person of two; there is no reafon why we may not contrarily make two out of one, and pretend that whatever we do while awake, may still be done by one or more different Agents. And thus, as I faid before, (Nº 6. and 13.) this affertion, That the foul itself may produce what it thinks (or is conscious that) another Agent produces in fleep, destroys the evidence of self-conscioufness, which is the furest and most intuitive foundation of all our knowledge; or rather it takes away felf-consciousness altogether, and leaves no distinction between our own consciousness and that of another person. I think another person speaks or acts so and so; yet it is really I myself who speak and act. Contrarily therefore, I think I E 3 myself myself say or do such a thing; yet it may be another person. Thus we must not loosen the foundations of this evidence of felf-consciousness in one case, and then confine the consequence of it to that case only: The contagion will spread; and the event will be putting a rod into another man's hand to chastise ourselves. If my consciousness of writing this at prefent, is not enough to afcertain it mine; my not consciousness of doing what I fee another person do, is not enough to ascertain it not mine. Let the Academick fee where this will end. I know the modern Academick hath learned to doubt, [or pretend to doubt] whether the EGO of this present time, be the same with the EGO of any past or future time (see my Lord Shaft sbury's Characteristicks:) But the opinion afferted in the present objection goes farther, and would pretend to shew that the EGO and the TU of the present time, may both be but one and the same person. Thus Des Cartes's principle, Cogito, ergo sum, may no longer be true; for while I fancy Ithink, it may be fome other thing that thinks, while I am not fo much as existing. And all these are no more than the genuine consequences of

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of supposing that the soul may act and say in sleep, what it thinks another Being acts and says at that time: Whence the certainty of the contrary principle, established in N° 6. is fully evident.

XV. But what does Cicero answer to this particular instance? Mihi (savs he) temporibus illis multum in animo Marius versabatur, recordanti, quam ille gravem suum casum magno animo, quam constanti tulisset. Hanc credo causam de illo somniandi fuisse. De Divinat. lib. 2. What a poor unfatisfying shift is this! Had he not Camillus and Scipio Africanus also in his mind? Why not have dreamed of these? especially since there was a greater affinity between his banishment and theirs, than between his and Marius's, who had but what he deserved; for they bore their exile with much more constancy and greatness of mind than he did. But allowing he had thought of no other banished Roman but Marius, was this thinking of Marius enough to have put words in Marius's mouth? to have given him life and action? to have given him fuch particular action; fuch particular words? A thousand different kinds of action, E 4

action, and a thousand other forms of speech might have been imagined, all as apposite to the purpose, as those he used. And must there not be a determining cause affigned, which out of fuch a variety pitched on what was fo odd? I would have this determining cause a little more thought of, and not passed over so lightly. Indeed chance is the determining cause in the greatest part of our philosophy; and with the affistance of that we make any thing do any thing. But what if he had not thought on Marius at all, and yet had dreamed of him? for this is a very common circumstance in our dreams. What then would have become of his banc credo fuisse causam? I cannot help making a reflection here, that the Academick, (either ancient or modern) is often to be pitied, who by his principles, and to maintain the credit of never being convinced, is obliged to dispute against every thing, even the plainest truths. This is a drudgery one would not be bound to undergo, and must of course make the Academick often absurd, and sometimes perfectly ridiculous.

XVI. As to the prophetical or monitory nature of this particular dream, I have nothing

thing to do with it; that lies at Cicero's own door, who relates it as having happened to himself. (For it is he that puts these words in his brother's mouth—Nam illud mihi ipsi celeriter nuntiatum est, ut audivisses in monumento Marii de tuo reditu magnificentissimum illud S. C. &c.) Though I am far from thinking such instances impossible. But should he not have said something in order to have accounted for this wonderful circumstance of it? He gives us a very fingular instance from his own experience, that a thing was foretold to him in his fleep, which came to pass as it had been foretold; and upon reflection owns That nothing could be more a proof of something divine: and yet after all fays, there was nothing more in it than that he was thinking on a certain person the Day before. Was that enough to give this person a prophetical vertue? Or to endue his own foul with a prophetical vertue? Which foever of the two he fays, provided he relates his own dream fairly, there feems to be no less a cause concerned in it, than that I contend for. If a man's own spirit is fometimes enabled to foresee things to come, I do not see how it can be affirmed

to be the cause of such a vision; supposing it produced all the rest. And if it cannot produce such a vision when the event follows; why should it produce the same, or a like vision, though the event should not follow. The event's following or its not following, hath no connexion with the physical cause of the vision; which therefore should be the same in both cases. I am fure the affigning any less cause, than I have mentioned, infers that which would utterly confound all knowledge, and put an end to all future enquiry; viz. That the effect may be every way more perfect than the cause that produced it; of which I have faid enough before. He fays, many dreams are not monitory; this indeed is, I think, as it should be, the cause of them being considered; and that in a long life he had only this one dream-Mihi quidem præter hoc Marianum, nibil sanè quod meminerim. Frustra igitur consumptæ tot noctes tam longå in ætate. Ibid. - What follows? Can a thing that only happens once, be without a cause? or without an adequate cause? He says of Democritus, upon his accounting for our dreams by fimulacra (of which below) Nec. cognovi

cognovi quemquam qui majori auctoritate nibil diceret. Ibid. Others will determine how far this is applicable to himself; but if what he fays of his only having had this one dream be true; Plutarch in his life, and Suetonius in that of Augustus, makes him contrive a refined piece of flattery to make his court to Julius Cæsar, in telling a fictitious dream of his own concerning Augustus, then but a young unknown stripling. - M. Cicero C. Cæsarem in Capitolium prosecutus, somnium pristinæ noëtis familiaribus forte narrabat: puerum facie liberali demissum cælo, &c. Sueton. in August. cap. 49. Plutarch tells this dream still more circumstantially, with the consequences that followed upon it. But whether Cicero had really forgot this remarkable dream; or diffembles it now, in his dispute; or whether these Writers unjustly father it upon him, I cannot fay: But it is certain these Books de Divinatione were written after the death of Julius Cafar; that is, after the time he is faid to have had this strange dream concerning Augustus.

XVII. There is another argument I mentioned before, against this notion that the foul

foul contrives, and presents to itself all those things we think we hear, and fee done in dreams; to wit, That it could not impose on itself by this method. This I shall explain a little, and shew a farther reason why it is impossible: which is, That in the instance above, and others of the like nature, it is necessary that the person's soul who dreams, (if it contrived and presented all to itself) · (bould still be busy in forming and producing the parts of the vision all along as they succeed to each other: just as a man, when he contrives a fable extempore, has his invention at work all the while, which certainly must hinder him from taking it for a true narration told by another, in which he has no other share but giving attention to what he hears, or beholding what is done in his prefence. In short, it would not be enough for the foul to make the disposition in the beginning of the representation, and order once for all, such and such a scene, which should afterwards come in view fuccessively, and of itself. It is a childish inattention to make fuch a supposition: the foul must all along form the transient and successive parts of the representation; as when a man repeats a speech,

speech, he must repeat it to the last word; or if he mimicks another man's action, he must personate him to the last gesture. It is therefore neither to be supposed, that the foul should forget this it's own constant action, which must continue all the time of the dream; nor that it could impose on itself, while thus constantly employed: and much less could it terrify itself in good earnest, as at the presence of real danger. Méque contremuisse (says Quintus) timore perterritum. - Would it not be a strange fancy, that a Poet might contrive a Drama, which should have a spontaneous power to exhibit itself in order, while he were ignorant of the whole contrivance, and imagined he had no other hand in it but as an idle spectator? This seems to be big with contradiction. And yet in effect the objection contains in it a no less absurd supposition. For if the foul by one simple act of the will, could produce a feries of successive action; the things feen and heard would be what we might call automata, or have life and fpontaneity of themselves. So necessary is it to admit of a living active principle here, that while we deny it, we are forced to suppose

pose things lifeless and inanimate, to have spontaneity and life. This is remarkably verified in Lucretius's account of dreams to be examined hereafter. And if we fay that the foul itself continues to invent and contrive the parts of the vision, as they constantly fucceed each other; it is impossible it should not be conscious of this its constant invention; or forget it, as if it were but one transient act. There is not a more painful act of the mind than invention, even while we are awake; as a late ingenious Author hath well observed; and it is certain that fleep binders and deadens the active power of the foul. Therefore, if it be a contradiction that the foul should exert this painful and laborious operation, while we are awake, and yet know nothing of it; it must be more impossible that it should perform this in fleep, with fuch ease, as to take all for the work of another being, as the fame Writer supposes [Spectator 487.] This is to make a prodigious wide leap in reasoning, from one extreme to another; first to own the difficulty, and then to affert the great facility, though in more disadvantageous circumstances.

XVIII. There is still another circumstance which plainly shews, that the foul cannot contrive those things for itself which we see and hear in dreams; viz. That it could not impose on itself as a reality then, what must appear an impossibility to it at all other times: and this is a quality attending many representations offered to the foul in sleep. It is in this respect our dreams are faid to be chimerical and wild. And if this observation be just; the very inconsistency and wildness of our dreams agrees least with the supposition made in the objection. Alexander the Great had a very remarkable dream of this kind, when his friend Ptolemy was wounded with a poisoned dart; namely, That a ferpent came to him with a root, or herb in its mouth; and told him where the herb might be found, what its vertues were, and that it would fave the life of his friend. &c. as is related by most Historians in the life of that Prince. Cicero himself, in the place beforementioned, takes notice of this dream, and allows it might have been fuch as narrated, (which is strange enough, for I am fure it by no means agrees with his folution) and wonders that his brother Quintus did not urge fuch a fingular instance. Now it would shock us to hear at any other time, and while we are awake, that a ferpent should speak, and that too while it held a root in its mouth. Cicero takes notice of this very impossibility, and yet owns that it might have appeared a reality to Alexander. But how could it, if Alexander's foul invented this abfurd fancy to itself? Any one who considers will never affirm it. It is plain Alexander's foul must have coupled together these ideas, by the same power of imagination that a painter employs, when he paints a Harpy, or a Centaur; and therefore he could no more have been persuaded that this was a real ferpent speaking to him, than a painter could think in good earnest, that the picture he had drawn was a living creature. I do not mention here the importance of what the serpent told Alexander, (let those who give the narration answer for that); but infift only upon the circumstance that a ferpent should appear to speak to us in a dream, which certainly is no very incredible thing. Cicero thinks he has accounted well enough for this when he fays, Non enim

enim audivit ille draconem loquentem, sed visus est audire, & quidem quod majus sit, cum radicemore teneret, locutus est; and adds, Sed nibil est magnum somnianti. But was it not enough that the serpent seemed really to speak, though it did not really speak? There is no difference between visus est audire and audivit, as to the reality of the perception; as every one will allow. And that being fo, the difficulty I infift upon is obvious: for the foul really perceives in dreams what must appear impossible to it at all other times. And this itself would be impossible, if the foul formed fuch chimæra's to itself by its own power. When he adds, Sed nibil est magnum somnianti, it is, I think, as if he had faid, " But after all, the ob-" jects feen in dreams are fo strange, that " there is no accounting for them this way." Or it is tacitly owning that the folution doth not remove the difficulty of the thing pretended to be accounted for; as if I should fay, it is very common to fee things in dreams, which are above the energy of the foul itself, or the powers of motion and matter; for, nibil est magnum somnianti.

XIX. I shall leave Cicero's account of dreams, after observing that the motive, which feemed to hinder him from owning that separate, intelligent Beings excited our visions in sleep, and which is still a motive with most men, is not justifiable in good philosophy; it is this, That men would grow idly and foolishly superstitious, and fearful of superior powers, if this were owned. He fays, speaking still of that dream about Marius, Omnium somniorum, Quinte, una ratio est, quæ, per deos immortaleis, videamus ne nostrà superstitione et depravatione superetur. What! Omnium fomniorum? This befeeching, without offering reasons for what he maintains, looks like begging That men would not argue from fuch inflances as he owns to have happened to himself, for fear of certain consequences; That they would not be too difficult to be persuaded, but wink, and turn away their eyes at proper places. To fearch after, or find out the true cause of any natural appearance, need make no man superstitious, or fearful of superior powers, who hath no other reason to be afraid: and if I have another reason to be afraid.

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afraid; what will it avail me to turn Sceptick with respect to the existence of separate, invisible Beings? If this conclude any thing, it concludes that I should turn Atheist altogether. And I find this Author faying elsewhere; Quis enim potest, cum existimet à Deo se curari, non & dies & nocteis Divinum Numen horrère? Et, si quid adversi acciderit (quod cui non accidit?) extimescere, neid jare evenerit. Academic. Quæst. lib. 4. Thus we fee this guilty fear drives men to hate that, which should be the only comfort of all reafonable creatures; to wit, that a Deity of infinite reason and perfection should govern the world. And one might carry this unpleafing remark still higher. For Cicero fays in the words immediately before, that Strato relieved him from much terror, when he taught that God neither made, nor took care of the world; but that furd matter did all that was done. It is true, a little after he endeavours to bring himself off, by the great Academical principle, faying, "he neither af-" fented to Strato, who denied a God; nor " to Lucullus, who afferted one." But this feems somewhat contradictory to his being relieved of his fears. In short, nothing should influence F 2

influence our fearches after truth, but the love of truth itself. Truth can have no ill confequences, but by our own fault; which, methinks, should take off the argument against fearching out an adequate cause of the prefent phænomenon of dreams, from a fear lest superstition should prevail: since that can be no argument in reason, whatever it may be in policy, or in some other consideration. If we are not to enquire whether there be a variety of immaterial separate Beings in God's creation, as there is of organized bodies in the material world, lest some men should turn fanciful and superstitious; by a parity of reason, we are not to enquire whether a Being of infinite reason manages the Universe, lest unreasonable men should hate him, as being against their interests; as Cicero allows they will. "Men would be eafier (says a certain great Author) if they " were affured that they had only mere " chance to trust to." And again, " No " body trembles to think there should be no "God, but rather that there should be one." But I hope he is mistaken: and I am sure they apostatize from the interests of reason, and a rational nature, who had rather trust

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to blind chance, than an infinitely wife, perfeet, and reasonable Being, or tremble at the thoughts that there should be such a Being. Only the malice of an infinitely evil Being could rejoice that there were no fuch thing as an infinitely good one, or that infinite reason should be cut off from nature. Finally, if superstition be such a dreadful evil. the best way to guard against it is, to search things to the bottom, and find out their causes impartially; and thence to estimate the grounds of hope and fear. And, after all, it doth not appear that chance and atoms. that is, dead matter, and unguided motion is fuch a firm principle of fecurity, as to find out from the principles of reason that an infinite intelligence guides the affairs of the world. And if an infinite intelligence guides the affairs of the world, we need not then be afraid, what, or how many creatures the world may contain.

XX. If it were material, it might be obferved here, that *Cicero*, in his fecond Book de Legibus, contradicts all that he had advanced in his Treatife de Divinatione; though he hath spoke better sense in it upon every

other particular than that of our dreams, But he faw, and was convinced, that men would make better members of fociety, if they were religious, than if they were Academicks. As Philosophers he teaches men to be Scepticks, or to maintain that truth is not to be perceived: forgetting, or at least over-looking the inconfistency of teaching them, what by consequence he allows is against the interests of society: for certainly practical truths are incontestable. If it were possible that speculative and practical principles could be opposite, I should by all means close with the latter; but it is impossible they should be opposite; for all truth is consistent with itself, as proceeding from the same infinite Mind, where undoubtedly it is confistent. But it is long since it hath been observed of this great Man, that his Academical Writings are at variance with his other works; and that he may be confuted out of himself, and in his own words.

XXI. Thus I hope this principle, that the visions, or φανίασματα, offered to the soul in dreams, are not the work of the soul itself, is firmly established; and that the objection

jection which supposes the contrary cannot be urged a fecond time. I endeavoured also in N° 7. to lay down another previous principle; to wit, That the scenes presented to the foul in fleep, in which there is fo much variety, action, and life, nay oftentimes speech and reason, cannot be the effect of mechanism, or any cause working mechanically. This still appears to me self-evident: but an exception hath been made to it, and an hypothesis offered, in order to account for dreams mechanically, [as I think.] This I shall also consider, and endeavour to point out the feveral particulars which feem to render it inconclusive. It is said, "Though history " and reason make it highly probable that " in some cases separate spirits act on the " fouls of men in dreams, and at other times; " yet it feems more reasonable to explain the "common phænomena from the union of "the foul and body, and the necessary con-" nexion thence arising between ideas in the " mind and certain motions in the body, or in those parts more immediately united to "the foul: That this indeed will not make "dreams more mechanical than the other " actions of external objects, or rather, than " the

"the motions in the fenfory on the foul; "but it makes them all proceed from one " principle or law: That though there " feems to be a difficulty in accounting for a " train of reasoning, which is very frequently " in our dreams, from this general folution; " yet if what some Philosophers have faid " of traces in the fenfory, be true, and the " relation that may be between them, when the ideas have a connexion which may " make the animal spirits flow from the one " to the other; a train of ideas which may "excite in us what is equivalent to a dif-" course, may arise from it: That the con-"fusion and incoherence of many, nay, " most of our dreams, favours this account, " the fucceffion of ideas in our minds, when " musing awake, is very near to this; and "the phænomenon of memory may illu-" frate it."

XXII. This account is as specious as the hypothesis can admit of, and touches on every hint that may give it a remote degree of probability: But a wrong hypothesis will not bear close reasoning, nor an application to particular instances. Here it is owned,

owned, that hiftory and reason make it highly probable, that in some cases separate spirits act on the fouls of men in dreams, and of other times. So far I think is right. But if this be allowed, it will not follow that an hypothesis which gives a contrary account of the common instances, can make them all proceed from one principle or law, as is afferted of this. Thus, unless this concession is again retracted, there must be two very different hypotheses for the solution of this phænomenon; separate spirits and mechanism: and I do not see that it can be retracted. And if there be any beauty, or philosophical fimplicity, in affigning one cause for one kind of appearance; this hypothesis doth not reach that. In another case it was said, that by reducing more phanomena to one principle. cause, or instrument, the beauty of nature was fet in a greater lustre. But there remains a greater difficulty, if we allow two fuch different causes as separate spirits, and mechanism, to excite our dreams in sleep: For what shall we make the criterion, or mark of distinction between the effects of the intelligent cause, and of mere mechanism? May lit not appear strange to advance such a solution.

lution, as that we cannot distinguish the one of these from the other? When history is mentioned as affording instances of the first kind; it feems fuch dreams as are followed by the event, are allowed to be exhibited by separate spirits. But if one should dream that a person came and spoke to him, and this really happened next day; and again, if he should dream that a person came and spoke to him, and no such thing happened: the first of these would be the work of intelligence, and the other of mechanism; and vet the effects are equal, or both the same. And it cannot be faid that this supposition is abfurd, or even improbable. We have often clearer, more fignificant dreams, and in which more reasoning is contained, on which nothing follows, than those are in which we see something that afterward comes to pass; as I believe is consistent with the experience of most men. Thus the work of mechanism, that is, of mere matter and motion, shall be more perfect than the work of intelligence and defign. I ask, if this would not make strange work in philosophy? If one should say, All clear, reasoning visions are the work of intelligence, and confused

confused ones of mechanism, or traces in the fensory; let him consider that the gradation, from clearness to confusion, is so imperceptible, that he will never be able to fix a limit this way. We allow an immaterial mover to the meanest insect that has spontaneous motion; otherwise, the gradation is so imperceptible, we should not allow one even to man. The case is the same here, I think; every thing feen which the foul doth not produce, and which matter, or fignatures in it (that is, traces) could not produce, should have an immaterial mover, and this from the bare confideration of spontaneity. Hence our dreams must be all mechanical, or all immechanical. That they are all mechanical, no man will maintain; for mechanism might then have life, spontaneity and reason. And there is this farther reason why they should all be immechanical, which I mentioned before in that seventh paragraph, viz. Philosophy doth not hinder us from assigning a cause that can do more than produce the effect; but frictly prohibits us to assign one that cannot do fo much: For affigning the latter would be to own the atheistical principle; which if it could be true in the least affignable instance,

I wish this might be considered. If I were persuaded that the effect might have some perfection, that its cause could not communicate to it, no argument for the Being of a God would ever be able to convince me.

XXIII. It is farther to be observed, that the union of the foul to the body, which is infinuated here to be the cause of dreams, only renders them possible. If the foul, or percipient being, were not united to, and present with the sensory, any impressions made, or motions excited there, could never be perceived: the fenfory, by what was faid in Sect. II. Vol. I. being but dead matter. But still the cause that makes these impresfions, or excites these motions, is wanting. There is certainly a connexion between fuch impressions made on the sensory, and certain ideas being excited in the foul: that is, fuch impressions made will excite such ideas, and no other. But pray, what is that to the purpose? Because every impression hath a fitness to excite such an idea, it will not follow that the idea may be excited without the impression is made. The fitness therefore fore or connexion between the motion impressed, and the exciting such an idea, will never supply the cause that impresses the motion. This may be illustrated by a familiar comparison. When a bell hangs in an outer room, and a cord tied to it is conveyed to another place; it would not here follow that the bell could ring without a hand, because there was a connexion or communication, by means of the cord, between it and the next room. Just so, the moving band, I think, is wanting in this folution: But, if that cause which moves the sensory be allowed, it accounts for all the rest. Union and connexion of themselves are no efficient causes, and will never answer for the origin of the motion. This folution is indeed a general explication, how, whatever affects the fenfory excites some idea or other in the foul; whether the thing, acting on the fenfory, be some external object while we are awake, or fome other cause while we sleep: but it-does not account for that thing itself, which so affects the sensory. Or, if union and connexion supersede the necessity of such a cause in our dreams; why may they not in our waking ideas? And then (as Dean Berkley contends) there may be no external objects.

XXIV. It is faid, "this folution will not make dreams more mechanical than the other actions of external objects, or rather than the motions in the fenfory on the foul." But I beg leave to observe that there is no parity, either in mechanism, or in any other respect, between the sensory (which is but dead matter) representing innumerable living scenes, without the action of external living objects, and the external objects themselves acting on the sensory, and thus conveying notice to the foul. last case, the sensory is but the medium of conveyance, and in the first case it should be the Agent. This makes a wide difference. A word might have been dropt concerning the cause of the motions in the sensory. have shewn good reasons against self-moving matter; and cannot allow it here. fame motions were excited in the fenfory. as would be if these words

[Ω Θεμισόκλεις, υσέρει Κεφαλης λεόν]ων, ίνα μη λέον]ι περιπέσης.] (r)

(r) O Themistocles! take up thy quarters short of the lion's-head; lest thou fall really among lions. Plutarch, in Themist.

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were pronounced while the person is awake; it is agreed on all hands, that the same ideas would be raised in the soul: but if these motions may exist in the sensory fortuitously. or without any adequate cause in dreams; then any thing might do any thing: or let it be shewn me where we can stop. If an eccho should repeat several words, which it never received, (pardon the impropriety) it would be no fatisfactory account of this to fay, It is the property of such and such figures, to reverberate the undulations of the air, fo as to imitate articulate words, and raise the same ideas as if the words were spoke by a living person. The great question here would be, How the eccho, whose known property it is to convey what it receives, could convey what it receives not. The case of words in dreaming is pretty near this. And I might argue the same way as to objects of fight. If a mirrour represented images when their objects were not present; how far would it be from fatisfaction to tell me, that it reflected the incident rays of light in fuch a manner, that all the rays proceeding from one point of the object concurred to form the like point of the image? For if no object were present, there would be no incident rays to be reslected: so in this case, if no object acted on the sensory, no motion could be excited in it, nor idea raised.

XXV. It may perhaps be supposed, that we might trust to the circulation of the blood, or the mechanical motion of some other fluid, for doing so much as to excite these motions in the sensory. This indeed is generally supposed the cause of these motions; but I may venture to fay that scarce a. ny supposition can be more absurd. Let us first suppose these motions orderly; and, secondly, that they may be disordered. Now in the first case, no man is able to imagine that the fame fluid, purfuing its own course mechanically, constantly, equally, should at this instant represent nothing at all by its motion; and in the twinkling of an eye, cause a house, a field, a giant to start up; and then a little after, things of quite a different nature. Who fees not that fuch a mechanical cause, if it represents things at all, must always represent the same things, or nearly the same; with an even, uninterrupted tenor; without fuch long pauses, or mon-Arous

strous transitions to things of opposite and contrary natures? When this is thoroughly confidered, no man is able, I fay, let him do what he can, to imagine it possible. Every tranfition must have its determining cause, according to all the laws of reasoning; and the wider the transition is, and the more opposite the natures of the things joined are, the farther will this appear from being the effect of a necessary mechanical cause to any rational Enquirer. We propose to ourselves a frugality of causes in the works of nature, which philosophy doth by no means countenance. Borelli hath shewn that nature makes use of prodigious motive power to move small weights. No change is produced in the state of matter without a living agent. The motion of the smallest reptile requires the power of the First Cause. Only here matter may change its own state, and do wonders beside! One may fay indeed that the fingle principle of gravitation performs all the various phænomena in the material world. But how, I pray, doth it this? Is it not by the various, constant, universal impulse of the God of nature?

Let us in the next place imagine that the motions of the fluids in the body are difor-Vol. II. G dered, dered, and thence that the motion of the animal spirits, or of any other matter we please to fancy in the body, is likewife difordered. How much is this able to perform? If order can do nothing, disorder can do less. In a regular motion of the fluids (or of any other particles of matter which they may be fupposed to move) the scenes of vision should go on regularly, mechanically, constantly; and fuch images only should be represented whose traces were still in the brain, and most patent there. Now in the disordered motion of these fluids the scenes exhibited should still be the same scenes, but only broken and disordered. This is a just inference; yet it is far from being the case. Could the disorder of inert particles of matter, make them jump into the regular formation of fomething they could never otherwise have represented, so as to imitate action, life, and even reason? This would in effect be Epicurus's dance of atoms! We might as well suppose that the small particles of dust, which are carried about by the motion of the air in a fun-beam, should form of themselves the figure of a man, with life and action; as that the animal spirits, tossed either by the regular

regular or irregular motion of a fluid, moving along its own channel, should perform fuch an effect. Let us remember that animal fpirits, according to all the notion we have of them, are only very small particles of matter which are the immediate instruments of the will, when the foul would excite motion in any part of the body; but here they are supposed to act of themselves independently on the will, and contrary to it: and certainly, if they are matter at all, this is a contradictory supposition; and if they are not matter, they are spirits in a literal sense. It is infinuated that, if the traces in the senfory have a relation (which is when the ideas have a connexion) this may make the animal spirits flow from the one to the other of these traces. But I ask, where, or how far one can suppose them to flow? words, actions, persons that never were heard or feen before, can have no traces in the fenfory. Why should ideas be joined that were never joined in nature? Or why should ideas be disjoined, which have been always before presented together? If I never saw a person but once and that on horseback, or sitting in bis night-gown; I must always think on him G 2 while

while awake, as in that posture, or that dress. In short, if it should be said, that the reason why the animal spirits slow from one of these traces to another, is because they are not related, or really not existent at all; it would be every wit as true! We take things in the gross, and satisfy ourselves with a distant hint; but when exactly viewed, the whole scheme proves contradictory to experience.

XXVI. It is faid, "what is equivalent " to a discourse, or reasoning, may arise from the flowing of the animal spirits into these traces." But I refer to the common fense of all men, if this were the case, whether the discourse, or reasoning in the dream, should not be the same with what we had heard, or some time or other held, in our waking thoughts: or whether it is not certain, that we fometimes hear discourses, and see persons in dreams, which we never heard, and whom we never faw before. And fince this cannot be denied, how shall we account for this discourse and reasoning from mechanical motion, particles of sluggish matter, and traces or fignatures on a material organ? The attempt feems

feems desperate; and we might as well undertake to account for the formation of a world, from atoms and chance. Reason is the greatest perfection we can have any notion of; and a reasoning being is one of the highest effects infinite Power can produce. For it is one thing to make an effect according to reason; and quite another to make fuch an effect as shall be itself a reasoning being. And can matter and motion (that is, inert particles, moved mechanically) rife to this perfection? And no living being (neither the foul itself, nor separate spirits, nor the Deity) is supposed here to interfere. We may perhaps think a fentence spoken in a dream a contemptible phænomenon. But what a compass of ideas must even a single sentence include, refer to, or shew the being to be possessed of? If a person can answer but one questionpertinently, we immediately own that he is a thinking reasoning being. And could animal spirits fall into their proper order, givethemselves the due impulse, direction, succession, as to seem to say but thus much, I am, O Brutus! thy evil Genius: but thoushalt see me again at Philippi? And thus much I am fure hath been spoken to us in a. G 3 dream:

dream; whether these words were ever spoken or not. And if thus much had been but once spoken, it would shew that more might have been spoken. And in truth how much more is spoken to us every night? These particles of matter called animal spirits are indefinitely small, and incredible numbers of them must concur to produce such an effect; and every one of the particulars I just now mentioned is to be determined; viz. their number, order, succession, as to time, impulse, and direction; without any of which the effect could not be produced: and there is nothing in the supposition to determine these feveral particulars but dead matter. Whence I conclude, unless the reasoning in the first and fecond Sections of the first Volume is wrong, this hypothesis is demonstratively false.

XXVII. If this hypothesis were true, our dreams would have quite other circumstances and qualifications than they have. The several differences I shall here mark. First, there would be always a connexion or relation between the ideas excited in the mind in dreams; and such a connexion, and cause

cause of transition from the one to the other. as there is while we are awake: for the ideas having been joined together while we are awake, is supposed the cause why the one should excite the other while we are afleep. But commonly there is no fuch connexion, and the transition is so wild and arbitrary, as surprises, and leaves us quite in the dark, how it could come about. 2. No new object could be thus offered to the foul, but fuch as had some time before occupied our waking thoughts. And yet in every instance it is otherwise. 3. All our dreams then ought to be according to nature, and the real existence of things from without. And yet they are never thus qualified; but persons, places, circumstances, are quite changed. 4. The strongest ideas, and those that have been most in our thoughts of late, should always be offered to us in our dreams: for the traces of those are deepest, and most patent in the fenfory. 5. The mind could never be furprised with these familiar ideas, which have been often before coupled together: and much less could it be terrified with them. 6. But chiefly there should be no diversity, or distinction of consciousness

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in our dreams, as when many persons seem to act their respective parts. How could the awakening these traces hold conference with us; ask questions of us, and not only personate our acquaintance, but strangers also? For these traces, like a train when kindled, should run on mechanically in their own course; and not stop at proper places, and wait for a return. This is a prodigious difference, if we consider it right. It is as if I should suppose that the words of a book (which I may call traces in it) should extemporarily change themselves from the subject treated of, and become question and anfwer, according to whatever I should say. Lastly, if ideas excited other connected ideas, and one trace awakened another, according as they were related; what should hinder us from being quite awake? And least this exciting and awakening should go quite round, as far as there were traces thus related. And yet we see new and foreign ideas excited, while the traces of waking ideas are kept close sealed up. A man dreams that he is in new circumstances; every night; though he should necessarily dream, according to these traces, that he is in the circumstances,

in which he really is; for the traces of these are without all doubt most strongly connected in the fenfory. Thus experience directly contradicts this whole affair of exciting ideas by connexion in our dreams. If this hypothefis had been applied to any one instance, where a person seems to discourse with us in our fleep, it would have appeared how infufficient it was. Let it be tried by the example of Marius or Alexander above. (N° 13 and 18.) It is easy to make hypotheses that perform nothing.

XXVIII. The confusion and incoherence of most of our dreams, rather disproves, than favours this account; for as on the one hand. they could not have the life, action, and defign, we observe in some of them; so neither on the other, could they have that extreme and monstrous opposition of ideas, observed in others of them. There would always be a relation and connexion between those ideas. according as they had been joined together, while we were awake; fince this connexion is made the formal cause of their being stirred up. The animal spirits are but inert particles of matter, that having no spontaneity of their

their own, to join extremes, and pass over intermediate traces. On Memory, so far as we are active, no way illustrates this folution: for here the foul is passive in all that is offered to it. When one muses, the soul moves its attention gradually from one object, or one idea, to another; but still with consciousness that it doth so, and according to the connexions which have been formerly made between them. There is no hurrying from one thing to another, without coherence or relation. Whence this particular illustrates the incoherence of our dreams as little. Men are not passive in memory, or in musing, but with respect to the first idea brought in view, by some external cause: in all the rest of the train, the soul is active more or less. In brutes it is otherwise. memory could illustrate this account, or if the ideas were excited in our dreams according as they were connected at other times; then, as I have already observed, being asleep would very little differ from being awake, as to the state of our thoughts: for our waking ideas would all come in view, according to the order and clearness of these connexions. This account therefore answers neither 3

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neither for incoherent, nor any other fort of For upon this supposition a mandreams. could never have wilder dreams than his waking thoughts, or his traces could furnish him with: yet in some cases, all is enchanted and preternatural; the foul is fuddenly thrown into wild and uncouth circumstances; objects are metamorphosed under the eye, which no traces in the fenfory, by being awakened, could ever effect. It feems to be in the hands of a powerful Magician, who creates strange fights, and inverts nature at pleasure. This particular hath not yet been attended to: but whoever pleases to consider the whole Appearance at leisure, will see that the very wildness and extravagancy of our dreams, as little agrees with a mechanical cause, as the coherent and rational part of them. If this had been observed, mechanical solutions would never have been offered. And if the rational part is not the work of the foul itself, nor the very wildest part the work of mechanism; where shall we find a cause for this effect? For undoubtedly it must have some cause. If a man affigns any other cause, than what I have affigned above; there are such instances

at hand, as immediately shew the impossibility of what he afferts.

XXIX. I have been the more particular in answering these two objections, as the answers to them establish the two principles I had previously laid down in N° 6 and 7; and that men may see what it is they advance, when they affign at random these causes of our sleeping visions. And since all the other hypotheses for the solution of this ohænomenon of dreaming, are reducible to these two; the conclusion in No 11. is rendered, I presume, unexceptionable. However, that the strength of the conclusion may the better appear, I shall bring it out in another method, and by a very short and clear argument; which is this: The appearances offered to the foul in dreams, all idle, trifling, incoherent, absurd, as they are, must either be the work of separate living Agents, or the immediate effects of the GOD OF NATURE. This may surprize: yet there is no medium. For first, chance can do nothing in God's world. And fecondly, whatever is performed by mechanism, is done with defign; fince matter can neither move itself, nor alter its direction, 4

direction, nor effect the least variation from the end proposed. Thirdly, no mechanism is spontaneous, or the work of the soul itself. Fourthly, God is the fole Mover in all mechanical motions, especially in the animal body. Therefore, whatever possible way dreams are produced, if the agency of separate spirits be refused, we must ascribe them to the immediate power of the Deity. Let this be confidered; which, as I take it, is demonstrative, and adds a new force to all that has been faid: and those who reflect on what was shewn, Sect. I and II. Vol. I. will not contest it, as being a fair consequence of the inertia of matter, and of the universal influence of the first Mover upon it.

And this conclusion is not affectation in me; for I am not able to avoid it: nor will any other man who thinks accurately, be able to avoid it. The only way to avoid this conclusion, would be, either to incur universal Scepticism, mentioned in N° 12. by losing the sense of our own consciousness, or the distinction between our own consciousness, and that of another being; or else to incur direct Atheism, by allowing that dead matter, and unguided motion, may not only perform

perform the effects of reason, but be itself a reasoning thing; or thirdly, to think nothing at all about it. The last of these it is very hard to do; and a reasonable man will never do either of the two first. Therefore I shall not dwell long upon the little cavils that may be raised. The supposed absurdities may lye more in our prejudices, than in the nature of the things themselves. Objections indeed from reason and philosophy ought always to be listened to; and for such I shall always preserve a due regard, and either anfwer or fubmit to the force of them when urged against me: but prejudices are only prejudices; and the history of Philosophy acquaints us, that many points have been reckoned absurd, heretical, damnable, which yet the strength of their own evidence has afterwards made popular, and caused to be univerfally received. However, some of the more common prejudices it may be proper afterwards to take notice of, so far as to shew how they may be removed, by what hath been already faid.

XXX. Nor is this conclusion new; the constancy and universality of the appearance, feems

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feems defigned to remind us of it at all times; and accordingly men in the earliest ages, long before Atheism was broached, or learning thought to confift in doubting, generally agreed in it, as a truth pointed out to them by nature herfelf. And ever fince we have had any records of history, or writings of any kind, it hath been admitted by the wifest men. Homer, the first and chief writer of that fort, to preferve probability, in bringing about and celebrating the revenge of Achilles on the Greeks, makes the pernicious dream to be fent by Jupiter to A. gamemnon, to perfuade him to draw them out again to battle (s). Achilles fays, that dreams come down from Jupiter: and that possibly the reason why the pestilence was fent into the Grecian camp, might have been discovered to some in a vision. And Agamemnon tells the Chiefs convened in council, that the divine dream came down to him. through the ambrofial night (t). This shews that it was then both the learned and po-

^{(1) - &#}x27;Αςίτη Φαίνειο βυλή,
Πέμψαι, επ' 'Αιςέιδη ΑΓαμέμνου οδλον όνειτον.

Iliad. 2;

^{. (1) &#}x27;Αλλ' ἄγε δή τινα μάνλιν. — Iliad. 1. and Κλύτε, φίλοι, Θετός μοι — Iliad. 2.

pular opinion, Hence the Poets generally, whose aim it is to follow nature, when they have any great incident to prepare, or some strange event to bring about a dignus vindice nodus, as Horace calls it, often make use of the agency of spirits in dreams, as the furest way to preserve the imitation they propose(u). Ovid, in his way, accounts for the strangeness of dreams, by making three cunning Deities the cause of three different kinds of objects offered to the fancy in fleep; one that represented men, and could act rationally; another that imitated brute creatures; and a third that put on the forms of inanimate things (v). And indeed, bating the poetical

(u) To pass over a thousand instances of this kind, even the severest will pardon my mentioning that in Shakespear's Macbeth, where the lady in her sleep endeavours to wash off the stains of the King's blood from her hands, which it is impossible to read, without a dreadful expectation of the future catastrophe, and a horror of the cruel murder.

(v) At pater ** è populo natorum mille suorum
Excitat artificem, simulatoremque figuræ
Morphea. Non illo jusso solertiùs alter
Exprimit incessus, vultumque, modumque loquendi,
Adjicit & vestes, & consuetissima cuique
Verba. Sed hic solos homines imitatur. At alter

** Seman.

poetical dress, and names, and assigning a certain number (though in the same place, he feems to allow an indefinite number [mille] of fuch spirits), there can be nothing more true and philosophical, than this account of the cause of dreams. For here it happens that that which is easiest to be conceived, and is most entertaining to the imagination, is the only confistent cause that can be given. Atheism is equally unentertaining to the fancy, and to the rational faculty; disagreeable to our nature in every respect; beginning and ending in universal deadness; a world of brute matter, toffed about by chance, without a governing mind, and living immaterial beings in it, affords a lonely unpleasant prospect to the foul. If things were thus, we

> Fit fera, fit volucris, fit longo corpore serpens. Hunc Icelon superi, mortale Phobetora vulgus Nominat. Est etiam diversæ tertius artis Phantasos. Ille in humum, saxumque, undamque, trabemque,

Quæque vacant animî feliciter omnia transit. Regibus hi, ducibusque, suos ostendere vultus Nocte solent: populos alii plebemque pererrant.

Metamorph. lib. II. ver. 633.

The fourest Philosopher must admire this description, and Morpheus's part.

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should want scope for the imagination, and even for rational enquiry; and must soon come to empty chance, or unsupported necessity, which extinguishes ideas, and puts an end to all pursuit. How much more agreeable is it, to be led by all that we see here, to an infinite Reason, than to have this dark and gloomy prospect of nature! Undoubtedly, unless infinite perfection imply a contradiction, it must be necessary because it is best (x).

XXXI. Moral philosophers, whose business it was not to search out the causes of things, but to teach how to act, especially the eastern philosophers, took it so much for granted that the transactions which are carried on with us in our sleep, were to be associated only to the efficiency of separate spirits, that they gained both authority and probability to their doctrine, by delivering it under the form of vision or dream, wherewith they were prompted by some friendly intelligence (y). Again, in the most learned, politest

⁽x) See the reasoning, No 25. Sect. II. Vol. I.

⁽y) Every one will call to mind here the excellent pieces,

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politest nations of Asia, we find that interpreting of dreams was accounted a part of wifdom and philosophy, and that these men were in great esteem in the courts of Kings (z). Now I shall allow (though perhaps I need not, for even natural reason tells us, that the fame being, who defigns a warning to any person, may enable another man to understand and explain it, and not him to whom it was fent; thereby bringing it about, that the last shall regard, and be directed by the first.) I shall allow, I say, that this art might be but a bold pretence, founded in wrong principles, and that the pretenders to. it never spoke but by guess: but what I would

pieces, done in imitation of this manner of writing, by the late Mr. Addison.

(z) Of this kind were the μάγοι ἐνειζοπόλοι in the court of Astrages King of the Medes, who interpreted his two dreams to him, concerning his daughter Mandane, the mother of Cyrus. Herodot. lib. 1. cap. 107, 108. They were in great honour and esteem with him, as appears by their speaking to him thus. - \Sio & eraσεώτος βασιλήος, εόνδος πολιητεω, καὶ ἀρχομεν τὸ μέρος, και τιμάς πρός σέο μεγάλας έχομεν οίτω ών πάνως ήμιν σέο τε, καὶ της σης ώρχης προοπίεον έςί. ___ cap. 120. And according to this Author, they interpreted both these dreams rightly.

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have to be observed is, Whether or no men, from their own experience, in feeing in their fleep what really came to pass afterward, were not first brought into an opinion, that some superior being sent these friendly warnings; and that clear and extraordinary visions had a significancy in them; and thereby first made this an art, and encouraged these bold pretenders to impose upon them? I am afraid, if we do not grant thus much, we shall not only deny the faith of history, but contradict experience. And this shews, that the conclusion here drawn feemed to be a principle generally agreed upon in the world, and in the earliest times. And it is hard to think how it could be otherwise; men always dreamed, and some men would reflect upon them. It is also farther to be observed with respect to those very interpreters, that though they feemed to be the first favourites, yet their post was not very defireable; for if they happened to mistake in some great matters, it was at the peril of their lives (a). that

⁽a) The same Magi, because they could not distinguish between a mock-monarch and a real one; but advised Assages to send home Cyrus in safety to his parents.

Phænomenon of Dreaming. 101 that it would feem they were fometimes in the right.

XXXII. I shall farther observe, that long after Atheism had been broached, and the licentious wits of Greece had fet themselves to refine on that new scheme; Plutarch thinks that in good philosophy, we must have recourse to the principle of separate spirits, to acount for these appearances, from the two instances only of Brutus and Dion, mentioned above. The place is remarkable; therefore I shall quote it. He had been speaking of the common arguments against this principle, that women and children, and other people, were only liable to superstitious fancies; and adds, "But if Dion " and Brutus, men of great folidity, and phi-"losophers, neither weak, nor credulous, " were so affected with these visions, as se-" riously to relate them, and consult their " friends upon them, I am afraid we must rents, the danger being past, he having exercised his kingdom among the children in the cottages; were afterwards put to death, when Astyages heard that Cyrus was preparing an expedition against the Medes-np 3τον μέν των μάγων τους όνειξοπόλυς, όι μιν ανέγνωσαν μετείνα, τὸν Κῦςον, τούτους ἀνεσκολόπισε. cap. 128.

H 3 "return

" return to the opinion of the old philoso" phers [τῶν πάνυ παλαιῶν], and own that
" there are bad spirits, who envy good men,
" and endeavour to stumble them, lest go" ing on in the ways of virtue, they should
" enjoy a happier lot after death than them" selves (h)." These are the words of Plutarch of Cheronea, and purely in point of philosophy. Sure they are not women nor children only, who have such visions in their sleep. Thus much of the antiquity of this

(b) Εἰ δὲ Δίων κὴ Βροῦτος, ἀνδρες ἐμβριθεῖς καὶ φιλόσο-Φοι, καὶ πρὸς οὐδὲν ἀκροσφαλεῖς, οὐδ' εὐάλωτοι πάθος, οὕτως ύπο Φάσματος διεθέθησαν, ώς ε παὶ Φράσαι, πρὸς ἐτέρους, ούκ οίδα μη των σάνυ παλαιών του ατοπώτα ου αναγκασθώμεν στροσδέχεσθαι λόγον, ώς τὰ Φᾶυλα δαιμόνια καὶ βάσκανα. προσφθονούνθα τοῖς ἀγαθοῖς ἀνδράσι, καὶ ταῖς πεάξεσιν ένιςάμενα, τάςαχας καὶ φόβους ἐπάγει, σείοθα καὶ σφάλλοθα την αρετήν ως μη διαμείνον ες απτώτες έν τῷ καλῷ καὶ ἀκέραιοι, βελτίονος εκείνων μούρας μελά την τελευλήν τύχωσιν. Plutarch. in Dion. As if he had faid - I do not see but we must admit that opinion of the oldest Philosophers, which is yet more wonderful; not only concerning the simple existence of such beings; but that a wicked and invidious species of those Demons, envying good men, &c. The pregnancy of the inftance feems to extort this supposition from Plutarch; which these new Writers should remember, who bring in his Authority to support the position, that Atheism is not near so great an evil as superstition. cinion;

opinion; not that any body denies it, but to remind men of the reason of its being so ancient. We may next consider the remaining objections against it.

XXXIII. There are persons who say they never dream; and some authors give us accounts of such. Suetonius tells us, that Nero never used to dream, till a little before his death he began to be terrified with portentous visions in his sleep (c). Aristotle says some

(c) Terrebatur ad hæc evidentibus portentis somniorum, nunquam antea somniare solitus. Sueton. in Neron. cap. 96.

Some Writers go so far as to tell us of whole Nations that never dream. Pomponius Mela, speaking of certain people in Africa, says, Ex his qui ultra deserta esse memorantur, Atlantes solem execrantur, & dum oritur, & dum occidit, ut ipsis agrisque pestiferum. Nomina singuli non habent: non vescuntur animalibus: neque illis in quiete qualia cæteris mortalibus visere datur. De Sit. Orb. lib. 1. cap. 8. But the certainty of this is put upon hear-say only; and we may judge what credit it deserves, from other relations in the same place, where he tells us of some Nations who are without heads, and have their faces in their breasts, &c. Blemmyis capita absunt: vultus in pectore est. Satyris, præter essigiem, nihil humani. Ægipanum, quæ celebratur ea soma est. There is nothing that could make a human body monstrous, which

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fome men never dream in their whole lives;

is not related by Geographers and Travellers as real, in some part or other of the earth. Thus this Author goes no farther than Germany, or rather Holland, to find men who have feet like horses feet, and others who have their ears so large, that they wrap them about their bodies, instead of cloaths. - Esse equinis pedibus Hippopodas, & Panôtos, quibus magnæ aures, & ad ambiendum corpus omne patulæ, nudis alioqui pro veste sint, &c. lib. 3. cap. 6. Upon which Vossius pleasantly enough fays, "Since these ears served them for cloaths 46 by day, for coverings by night, and for umbrellas in "the heat, it is a wonder these Authors should not " add, that the people made use of them as wings to fly " withal." This indeed would have completed the prodigy. Not far from the Atlantes who never dream, Mela tells us of another Nation, who it feems dream very seriously ---- Augilæ manes tantum Deos putant : per eos dejerant, eos ut oracula consulunt; precatique quæ volunt, ubi tumulis incubuere, pro responsis ferunt somnia. And this appears more probable; for, as was faid before, the phænomenon of dreaming, (mifunderflood indeed, and misapplied) seems to have given the first rise to Superstition and Polytheism. It is true, Voyages and Books of Travels tell us of feveral Nations, in different parts of the world, who have no fort of Religion, no name, nor notion of any supreme Being: but if this be fo, as Mr. Locke would have us believe, it feems the inhabitants of these countries never dream. Since we can scarce conceive that this single phanome-

lives (d); and that young children do not dream; nor people come to years immediately after eating (e). Mr. Locke, in a place referred to above, tells us of one who was bred a scholar, and had no ill memory, who never dreamt in his life, till about the twenty fifth or twenty sixth year of his age, when he fell into a sever. If this be so, dreams that are not, need not be accounted for; and such persons will want that which gives the surest conviction in this case, namely experience; and the reasoning above will be to them conditionally true only; that is, if there be such appearances, they must be from such a cause. And thus far it must

non should not be enough to kindle up the notion of some Religion or other in the minds of men, though we could suppose all religion once entirely lost in the world. However, the matter of fast itself begins now to appear salfe; and these monsters gradually evanish, as the countries they were said to be in are more resorted to, and become better known. Nature seems to be every where of a piece with herself. But this is not the place to speak more on this subject.

(d) "Hôn de tion συμβέζηκεν, ως ε μηθεν ενύπνιον εος ακένας καλά τὸν βίον. De infomn. cap. 4.

conclude,

⁽e) Διὸ κ) μεῖα την τροφήν, κ) πάμπαν νέοις οὖσιν οῖον τοῖς παιδίοις, οὐ γένον]αι, ἐνύπνια. Ibid. cap. 2.

conclude, even to those. But the concurring testimony of all the rest of mankind, should weigh fomething with them over and above: for these instances are told but as rare (f). Perhaps some may affirm this, who do not take the trouble to reflect on the state of their mind while fleeping, because of their intenfeness on their waking thoughts and business, or otherwise. Aristotle, in a place cited before, makes it a condition of the circumstance's appearing, εί τις προσέχοι του νέν, κ ωειρώτο μνημονέυειν ανας άς; if he be attentive, and endeavour to recollect upon awaking. But that which chiefly invalidates their affertion, is, that it hath been shewn contradictory, in Nº 23. Sect. IV. Vol. I. that they should be certain of what they affirm: we can have no memory, or experience of a state, which, by the nature of it, is a negation of all memory and experience. Some delirious persons, whether in fevers or otherwise, when they come to themfelves again, remember nothing of what they faid and did then; yet they were active and percipient all the while. It cannot be affirmed

⁽f) Aristotle says, Σωάνιον μεν το τοιοῦτόν ές ιν, συμβαί-

to be impossible that some kind of dreams, or the dreams of some constitutions, may not be thus qualified. As to Aristotle's observation, that after eating, &c. I think it is contrary to experience; and the reason he affigns for it should conclude just the contrary. For if the motions in the fenfory continued after the objects are gone, be the cause of dreaming, as he affirms (g); a frequency of that motion would make dreams indistinct, (which feems to be the case, and doth not contradict the folution here given) but could not occasion a not-dreaming. Lastly, those who think they fay a great deal against this conclusion, by telling us they never dream, may please to observe, that their case agrees much better with the affertion. That our dreams are

formed

⁽g) The reason he assigns, why we do not dream then, is just the same that he assigns, why we dream at other times—Πολλη γας η κίνησις δια την από της τροφης θερμότηλα and yet these κινήσεις από τῶν αἰσθημάτων, are the only cause of dreaming. If a κίνησεις is the cause, a πολλη κίνησεις may cause a confusion, and not remembring, but cannot be the impediment. Besides, since sensation and dreaming have the same original according to him; why is not sensation, while awake, impeded after eating. But this is the least objection against Aristotle's mechanical dreams.

formed and represented to the soul, by an intelligent and free cause, than that they are mechanical, and necessarily produced. For then, dreaming must be caused by the mechanical motions of the animal œconomy, and therefore equable and constant according to that; or an effect of some material action in Lucretius's way; and therefore still mechanical and necessary: whereas if the exhibiting those scenes to us, depends on the will of free, intelligent beings, and these again are subordinate to the government of a supreme over-ruling Being; it were easy to asfign reasons, no way inconsistent, why this appearance should not be always after one uninterrupted tenor: or rather this last cause feems naturally to point out to us fuch a variation. We contract a habit of forcing our reason to submit to our prejudices: but let a man confider, as it were for the first time, this appearance; if any thing can less agree with the surprising variety of the scenes offered to the foul in fleep, than a mechanical cause; or with the art and contrivance, the life and action, nay the ideas and reasoning, contained in what we hear and fee during that time, than a dead and undesigning cause: or rather

if any thing can be more opposite. If a man speaks to us while we are awake, we conclude that he hath ideas in his mind; that he is free, reflects, reasons, methodizes: if fomething speaks to us while we sleep, what are we to conclude concerning it? Nero's beginning to dream before his unhappy death only, makes more for one fide of the present question, than his not dreaming all his life before (supposing the fact true) can make for the other. Reasons neither contradictory nor improbable, might be affigned for this: but fuch particularities are defignedly avoided. Neither chance, nor mechanism, become more powerful before these dreadful events, than at other times. Who doth not admire Virgil's making Dido fee those gloomy visions, in a like case, as fomething extremely natural?

XXXIV. On the other hand, there are men who tell such improbable, romantic stories of their dreams; out of a vanity we all have, as if remarkable things happened to ourselves beyond others; that even sober people, and equitable judges, are on their guard what they believe. This is no less offensive

offensive to the truth, than running into the other extreme: for the *Sceptic* hath too great a scarcity of other arguments, to let one of this fort pass (b). *Plutarch*'s rule in

(h) Lucian has displayed all his art, in that Dialogue which he calls the Philopseudes, to make the folly and weakness complained of here, stand for a demonstration that there are no separate spirits. He brings together the chief men of the feveral fects of the Philosophers, to talk fuch wild and weak things of apparitions and vifions, as shock common sense; and introduces a Sceptic, who of course must have all the sense and learning in the company, to confute fuch filly stories, and shew us the wisdom and sobriety of believing nothing. This part he acts well enough, till one of the company defires him to give his reasons for constant doubting. It was not so easy to acquit himself in this case. Their vanity and folly were his best arguments. All he says is, that Democritus of Abdera shut himself up in a monument without the city, writing and studying night and day; and when some waggish persons would have frighted him into a belief of spirits, with a counterfeit apparition; without vouch fafing to look about at them, he defired they would not disturb him. 'Oulw Becalwe ewisevor unoev e vas τὰς ψυχὰς ἐτι ἔξω γενομένας τῶν σωματων. And with this flourish he artfully leaves the company, and avoids anfwering to the troublesom question about oracles. He believed that it is only matter which thinks in us, while we are alive; and that therefore the foul is nothing at all when out of the body.

a paral-

a parallel case comes to this; Nec omnia, nec nibil (i); and a fober man will make it his rule.

(i) I shall quote his reason for this rule, as well as the rule itself. It is in the life of Camillus, where having fpoken of several prodigies, he adds, 'ANNA' TOIS TOISTOIS. κή το πισεύειν σφόδεα, καὶ το λίαν άπισείν, ἐπισφαλές ἐσις อีเล่ รทิง ลำอิยุพสมาทุง ลัสอิย์ทะเลม, อัยุงา อยิน รัฐยสลง, อยิธิ นอลโอยีสลง αύτης, αλλ εκφερομένην, όσε μεν είς δεισιδαιμονίαν και τύφον. όπε δε είς ολι ωρίαν των Sείων, και πεςι βρόνησιν. The rule he lays down for this is, "H de dedabera no to under ayar, act-Whoever pleases to consider the catalogue of prodigies in this place, where he lays down the rule, will fee they are none of the least fize. In short, this δεισιδαιμονία, that is, a fear of spirits, hath been much abused by vain or weak people, and carried to an extreme, by designing and crafty men perhaps: but that it should entirely be cast off, I think the most rigorous philosophy will not justify; though Mr. Bayle says in a like case, Aussi faut-il avouer, qu'il n'y a qu'une bonne & solide philosophie, qui comme un autre Hercule, puisse exterminer les monstres des erreurs populaires : c'est elle seule qui met l'esprit hors de page. (Pensées Diverses. Sect. 21.) If this folid philosophy of his is founded on the natural powers of matter, it will never answer the end. So we find Lucretius boafting of his philosophy as an excellent remedy against the fear of any Being,

Hunc igitur terrorem animi, tenebrasque necesse'st Non radii solis, neque lucida tela diei Discutiant; sed naturæ species, ratioque.

Lib. 1. ver. 147.

rule. But albeit we may pretend experience which we have not, or dissemble that which we have, to one another; none of us can conceal his own experience from himself, which is therefore the surest conviction (k).

It is true, no evil can happento us in God's world, but by our own fault; but that subordinate beings are never permitted, or commissioned, to be the ministers of his will, is a hard point to be proved. And that direct Atheism is better than this Deisidemony, is horrid. to fay, rather than to believe that God may allow inferior Powers to be the ministers of his will against us; it is better to maintain that he hath no perfection, no power, is nothing; nay, better to maintain, that there is no such thing as reason, or truth, or goodness in nature. For, as hath been faid, without the existence of such a Being, all these go out in everlasting darkness. I might farther observe, that in the late remonstrances against this Deifidemony, the Deity himself seems to be included, as one of those spirits we need not stand in awe of: fo that at any rate Atheilm is better than to admit of a God who could do any thing but protect us in our folly, or who could punish our acting against the law of our nature, reason. But of this elsewhere.

(k) I can't help thinking it would be well if we were a little more curious in examining those instances that happen to ourselves, and weigh the particular circumstances of spontaneity, life, language, against the inertia of matter, or the instexibility of mechanism, and this perhaps would convince us at home.

And in some cases the experience of one man becomes that of another; as when we see people start, cry, get up, lay about them, and do abundance of other extravagant actions in their sleep. Lucretius, in a place cited before, says

Tollunt clamores, quasi si jugulentur ibidem: Multi depugnant, gemitusque doloribus edunt.

However this humour of telling vain stories is the reason that a man cannot give such instances, as confist with his own knowledge, or might otherwise be depended upon; because however true, they have something in telling, that favours of the chimney-corner: and therefore I have purposely avoided even fo much as the mentioning them. And though the examples given by ancient Authors, will better bear telling, as having stood on record for many ages; yet I have declined laying the stress of the argument on these. That reasoning is most convincing, which is most universal, and draws nearest the experience of every body. Yet I shall venture sometimes to mention these last: but still, without infisting on the certainty of the par-VOL. II. I ticular ticular facts, only hypothetically, and fo far as they are not impossible to happen, nor unlike to what does still happen at this day. Some of them are singular; and great events have been consequent upon them; a qualification which still puts them farther beyond exception: and generally this is the reason why they are at all transmitted to posterity. It had been child-ish to have inserted any thing of this kind without some such reason, and as it had a relation to the events treated of. But if there had been any thing unnatural, or absurd in them, they would have been entered with a note; as the more judicious sort of Writers always do traditions seemingly fabulous.

XXXV. But there are other more material objections against this conclusion; it may be said, That since many bodily distempers are accompanied with strange contradictory scenes of vision, even while we are awake, they seem rather to proceed from the disorder of the brain, than to be excited by immaterial Agents; or if we should allow that they are so excited, those beings must be very trifling, idle, absurd, ignorant, weak; or such as we cannot well conceive separate spirits

fpirits to be. That it is abfurd to suppose fuch beings busied in suggesting imaginary phantoms even to brute-animals, as we must say they do, if this conclusion be just with respect to men. That the most part of the things we fancy we fee in fleep, are fo wild and inconfistent, that one cannot help thinking chance hath a great share in their production, &c. To speak to each of these singly, we may observe first in general, that there are few truths, except those feen intuitively, against which objections, founded on feeming probability, and old prejudices, may not be raised; if we fuffer the reasons to slip out of our mind from which they were concluded, and retain in view only our former way of thinking about them. It is an easy, but a fallacious method, to run away with a flux of words: we may draw up fuch a specious shew of probabilities, supported by prejudices, as shall make a dreadful appearance taken all together; and yet turn to nothing at last, when examined and fifted separately. When an exact Person makes objections for the love of truth only, he will be fevere in examining his own objections in the first I 2 place,

place, and endeavour to throw them into the rigorous form of an argument, proving all his affertions as he goes along, and not expect that any thing should be allowed him, purely because he is on the objecting fide. When we take this way, we generally fave ourselves and others a good deal of trouble, by finding out where the mistake lay. For it is a sure principle to trust to, That two contradictory assertions cannot both be true; and if we can find no fault in the reasons that establish the conclusion on the contrary side, we should sufpect our own objections. Those indeed are the most promising objections, that attack directly the reasons on which the thing is founded; but if they leave these standing, and turn to by-considerations, much is not to be expected from them. In that case, viz. when a conclusion is founded on such reasons, as are liable to no exception; and difficulties from other confiderations are only offered: it follows from the confiftent nature of all truth, and the necessary barmony between all true propositions, that satisfaction enough is given them, if it can be shewn that it is possible and consistent e-

enough, that the thing objected may be for fuch a reason, and in such a manner; though it cannot be positively said or proved, that it is for this very reason, and in this particular manner. The point then comes to this. Such a circumstance or appearance, which is on all hands allowed to be real [as that many of our dreams are chimerical and wild] would not be, if such a conclusion as is pretended to be established [to wit, that they are exhibited by feparate spirits] were true. And in answer to this, a possible and consistent reason is given, why it might be fo, notwithstanding this conclusion; and a manner is shewn, in which it might so come to pass; though it cannot be proved, that this is the very manner, or that the very reason. Then it follows that the appearance, contended to be inconfistent with the conclusion, is confistent with it more ways than one; on supposition that the reason given, or manner shewn, is not the real reason or manner that obtains. And a thing that is poffible two ways, cannot be impossible. It was but necessary, in such an intricate subject to premise thus much concerning the

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nature of objections to a legitimate conclusion. The defign of all reasoning whatfoever (as was hinted above,) is in order to avoid contradiction; and if denying the cause assigned of the present phænomenon, forces us upon it; to have recourse, to wit, to the powers of dead matter, or of mechanism, for the appearances of life; or to suppose that effects may be perfecter than their cause; to raise objections here will not appear so easy to a considering person.

XXXVI. From these considerations, a general answer might be given to the difficulties mentioned; for unless it could be shewn that this instance here argued from, is fuch as never happens to any man; or that the reasoning upon it is faulty; neither of which, it is prefumed, can be done; it will follow, fuch difficulties notwithstanding, that in this, and such other like instances, the agency of separate spirits is plainly necessary; which is the chief thing afferted. And, as was argued No 10. if we could be certain that fuch an instance had happened but to one man, and that once only; the conclusion would still be certain, with

with respect to that one instance; that fome living, invisible being effected it, and therefore existed. A contradiction once bappening, is itself a contradiction. Nay, let it be observed, though a Sceptic could fairly prove, that in other examples, not thus qualified, another cause obtained; even this would not invalidate the conclusion made. For reason would always force the same inference, from the same conditions and circumstances, whatever might be in other cases. And any one will readily allow, that the instance here assigned (or rather that part of an instance) draws nearer to the common and ordinary fort of dreams, than to those that are very clear and fignificant. We frequently dream that we are in company with other men, who att and speak like men. This adds the appearance of language and rational action, to life and spontaneity. But that which will determine a man, who confiders this affair justly, and hath an eye always upon the inertia of matter: to ascribe all the scenes offered to us in our fleep, to the same cause, is, That matter is as little capable of spontaneity and life, as of reason itself. The impossibili-

ty of its ever becoming a felf-moving substance, was that which we first discovered concerning it. And every thing that we hear or fee in fleep, is full of Spontaneity and action; if not of reason. Let any one explain to me, how the particles of the fenfory could, of themselves, and without external impulse, represent an animal purfuing us; a crawling serpent, or flying fowl. And the particles of the sensory, if any thing, must do it; for it is that to which the foul is united, and which communicates the impressions immediately to the foul. Let him not tell me of mechanism, or chance here; for it is absurd to fpeak of them; upon the fame account as it would be abfurd to afcribe the real motions of the living creatures themselves to these principles. It is the spontaneous principle that we want, the necessity of which makes us allow an immaterial Mover to every living thing. But farther; if we have a vision represented to us, where there are rational agents, or men; brute, or irrational creatures; together with a scene or fystem of inanimate things; as every reprefentation must have a place, or scene where

it exists: we cannot say that invisible beings form and exhibit only the two first particulars, (the rational and spontaneous parts) and leave the soul itself, or chance or mechanism, to form the inanimate parts or scene of action. All is, as it seems, the work of the same agent, and exhibited at once. Therefore I think it was extremely accurate in Ovid, to assign a third Deity who should represent immovable rocks, standing forests, running waters:

Ille in humum, saxumque undamque, trabemque,

Quæque vacant anima, feliciter omnia transit,

And if we should consider the exhibiting of monsters, and things quite without the verge of existence, the difficulty of finding another cause for them is not lessened but increased, as they recede farther from the course of nature, and stated laws of mechanism: yet these are made the main arguments for chance. Thus we see the philosophical consideration of dreams doth not so much regard, whether they are consistent schemes,

schemes, according to the course of nature, as the impossibility of their being physical productions. There is enough in the most incoherent of our dreams, or even in a part of these, to shew that they are things quite above the powers of matter or mechanism. Nor is it philosophical, I think, to seek for different causes of the same kind of appearance, though the several instances may not be all alike. It is a maxim in philofophy, when effects are all of one kind, though perhaps not equally perfect in degree, that they proceed all from the fame kind of cause (1). Artists equally good might produce pieces of work unequally perfect, for a thousand reasons that could be named. Often we see a cause confessedly the same, produce effects not equally perfect.

From

⁽¹⁾ Effectuum naturalium ejusalem generis eædem sunt causa: ut descensus lapidis & ligni ab eadem causa procedit, &c. Introduct. ad ver. Phys. Lect. 8. Axiom. 6. Every body would allow that some dreams are exhibited to the soul by invisible beings; but that others are the effect of some other thing (they know not what:) This, though enough to my purpose, is not enough in philosophy, I presume, if the reasoning in this paragraph is right; which therefore ought to be well considered.

From this we would not infer, that some pieces were the effect of art, and others of chance. And often the nature of the thing produced doth not require so much skill to be employed. Thus to instance in the prefent case, from the same description of Ovid; we may conceive less art is necessary to his third Deity, to represent to the sancy in sleep, mountains, houses, rivers; than to the second to exhibit the motions and spontaneity of animals, though mute: but that it is still harder than either of these for the first, to represent men speaking and acting like rational creatures.

XXXVII. As to what is urged, that bodily distempers may be the cause of these representations, enough hath been said already (m). No man can seriously persuade himself, whatever he may say, that the simple indisposition of the brain, or any other part of the body; that is, a mere distarrangement of material parts, can be a sufficient cause, why a scene of vision is obtruded on the soul, where there is life and reason: nor doth he really understand

⁽m) See the note (n) in this; and (b) in Sect. V. Vol. I.

himself when he says so. How, I pray, is it possible that the mere disarrangement of the parts of matter should perform this; when it hath been shewn absolutely impossible, that any arrangement of them should perform fuch an effect? But what strange causes have men adopted into their philosophy! We could then be certain of nothing, if a defect, the utter negation of a cause, could perform things of fuch a high nature. It is true, these visions are oftenest (though not always) obtruded on the fancy, when the body labours under some previous disorder: but let me ask; Is it not quite a different thing for these scenes of spontaneity and life to be effected purely by the disorder, and to be exhibited to the foul only upon the occasion of the disorder? Or is it less contradictory, that they should be produced without a sufficient cause, when the body is indisposed, than when it is otherwise? And what shall we fay, when they are effected without any previous disorder? Both order, and the want of order, cannot be the cause.

XXXVIII. This, if duly attended to, will fatisfy us, that the indisposition of the body

body can as little produce these visions while we are awake, as while we fleep, or rather less; so that an Objector seems to argue with more disadvantage in bringing in this as a parallel case, to shew that our dreams proceed from a bodily distemper. But to apply the argument particularly: it follows from what has been faid, that if a man, under an indisposition of body, from what cause soever it may arise, should see what other people about him do not see, and cannot fee; if the object feen is fuch, as cannot be produced without a living spontaneous cause; if he sees it with fright and reluctancy, and if it gives him uneafiness and pain, so that the foul itself cannot be this cause; provided, I say, he sees it so, and fuch, it follows from the reasoning above, that a living intelligent cause as certainly tampers with his organ then, and makes these impressions upon it, and maintains them there, notwithstanding the action of external objects upon it at the same time, as if the same thing happened to him in his fleep only. If the thing feen be of that kind, and hath all the conditions requisite to infer the conclusion concerning a vision seen in fleep,

fleep, the circumstance of being awake can make no alteration, nor change the necessity of the reasons in the former case; it only requires a greater degree of the same kind of power to be exerted: or rather the circumstance of being awake makes the conclusion more evident and plain in this last case; for then we have our memory unclouded, and all our former ideas and experience, to have recourse to, whereby to disprove (as we might think) the reality of the objects offered, as existing ab extra; and it is common for persons in such circumstances, to reason consistently enough about such other matters, as have no relation to the thing in question: whereas in sleep we are deprived of those helps, by the nature of that indis-Now, as it would require greater position. art and cunning, to impose on a man of judgment and sense, than to deceive an unexperienced infant: so in the circumstance of being awake, it is evident more power must be exerted, and that less than the cause assigned could not produce the effect. Thus it is easily conceivable that these vifions might be offered to the foul, not only while we fleep, but while we are awake,

(as the objection supposes) and not only while the body labours under some indispofition, but while it labours under none: and that they may confift of one particular object feen, and for a short time; or of greater variety, and for a longer space; so that these beings could tyrannize over the foul, and maintain their illusions stubbornly, the body being no way previously indisposed. And yet we call this madness. The words desipere, delirare, infanire, carry with them a fort of imputation on the foul itself, as if it fell into those disorders through some fault in its own constitution. The persons so affected meet with contempt instead of pity: but who can promise himself immunity? As I faid above, he hath not rightly confidered the affair, who thinks he could stand his ground.

Sic temere in nosmet legem sancimus iniquam.

The foul in itself is an uncompounded, simple substance, and hath no parts, and therefore properly no constitution, neither is it liable to any change or alteration in its own nature, (Sect. III. Vol. I.) The inert matter

of the body could never affect it thus. That could only limit its faculties farther and farther, or deaden its activity, (Sect. IV. Vol. I.) but not animate it after such a terrible manner. Hence there is no other way of accounting for its being affected in this manner, but by the cause I have already affigned; unless men would run up to the very First Cause for effecting the present phænomenon. See the argument in N° 29. Let them chuse. Thus these material sensories, to which, in the opinion of some, we owe the perfection of rational thinking, subject the soul to terrible accidents (n.)

XXXIX. But

(n) Some things, only transiently hinted at in this paragraph, would carry one a great way in speaking intelligibly concerning the disorders our reason is subjected to from some external cause; but any man, who is not still head-strong in ascribing disproportionate effects to certain imaginary powers in matter and mechanism, may from what is said, reason consistently concerning the several cases that might be objected, without suffering himself to be entangled with sceptical arguments. There is indeed a great difference, and variety, in the several phænomena of reason disturbed; but universally, the disease could not be lodged in the soul itself; nor could the matter of the body affect it any other way than by deadening

XXXIX. But farther, the transition from one of these states to the other, seems almost to lye, I think, within the reach of our conception. It is matter of fact, and we need not be afraid of being deceived, when we allow it, that some people rife in their fleep, and do certain actions; that they speak, threaten, fall a fighting; without being awakened with all the motion they give themfelves; and that they are with difficulty brought to themselves again, even though their eyes are wide open. (See the Note (f). N° 5.) Now this can proceed from nothing else but a scene of vision's being

deadening its activity, which, I think, is never the case in these appearances. In short, the disorder of matter might make a man a stupid idiot, subject him to sleet, apoplexy, or any thing approaching to its own nature; but could never be the cause of rage, distraction, phrensy, unless it were employed as an instrument by some ether eause, i. e. it cannot of itself be the cause of these disorders of reason. If the inertia of matter infers any thing, it infers thus much. And all this together, confidered equitably, vindicates the rational nature of the foul from depending on matter for its perfection, or any other way than as it limits its faculties, or may be made an instrument to disturb it.

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strongly printed on the imagination, and obstinately maintained there, by some living intelligent being, notwithstanding that external objects act upon the fenfory at the same time. And if the power of fuch a being is unrestrained, it will equally possess the fancy with these delusive scenes, without waiting for the occasion of sleep to introduce them; and obtrude them forcibly upon the organ, amidst the action of external objects. For it requires but a greater degree of the same power, to make delusory impressions upon the sensory, while real external objects are making true impressions upon it; than it would require to make the fame impressions, while no other impression from external objects is made upon it at the fame time. If one is made to fee in his fleep a man pursuing him with a drawn fword; there are certain proper vibrations excited in the optick nerves, or fuch impressions made upon that part of the brain, on which the optick nerves act, as if these vibrations were excited in them. And if the fame vibrations are more powerfully excited in the optic nerves, while the eyes are open, than those excited by external objects then acting.

acting, the man pursuing with the drawn sword will still appear, even though the eyes be open (o). And thus by easy steps we see, that dreaming may degenerate into possession; and that the cause and nature of both is the same, differing only in degree; for dreaming

(o) Aristotle, though in this whole affair he affigns a different cause from that here given; yet he describes the formal manner, why ecstatic persons (as he calls them) fee what others do not, and cannot fee, nearly the fame way: because, to wit, the ordinary motions in the senfory are overcome, and drowned as it were, by foreign motions; of which therefore these persons are chiefly senfible. TE d' eviss ensalixão weoopav, airiov oti oixeiai κινήσεις έκ ένοχλεσιν, άλλ άποριπίζον αι των ξενικών εν μάλιςα αίσθάνουλαι. And a little below of melancholic persons, he says, 'Οι δε μελαγχολικοί, δια το σφόδεα (ob vehementiam) ωσπες βάλλονδες πόρρωθεν ευτοχοί sion (he had been speaking of such as are suguestes); the reason is - Δια την σφοδεότηλα έκ εκκεέελαι αυτων ή κίνησις υφ' ετέρας κινήσεως. Which is as much as to fay, the strongest impression predominates. But what is wonderful here is, that Aristotle, believing there were ensalino) and ev Duóveigoi, should offer to account for this mechanically. He might as well have faid, that the reason in natural philosophy, why some men are rich, and others poor, is the different colour of their beards!

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is but possession in sleep, from which we are relieved again when we awake, and external objects begin to folicit the perceptivity through the fenses: but the other possession is more stubborn, and not to be displaced so easily. We may conceive, when fuch a being is allowed the afcendant over our ordinary fensations and ideas, it will keep up that power as long as possible. There is somewhere, I think, in Dr. Tillotsons's sermons, a pious reflexion to this purpose, " That if our imaginations were " let loofe upon us, we should be always " under the most dreadful terrors, and " frighted to distraction with the appear-" ances of our own fancy: but that an " over-ruling power restrains these effects." Now it is not easy to conceive what can be meant by not letting our imaginations loose upon us, unless it be understood of restraining the power of these invisible beings, which would otherwise incessantly distress the foul with fuch unpleasing fights. the matter of fact in the beginning of the paragraph, from which this transition is made appear conceivable, should be contested, or denied, though Lucretius himself vouches

vouches the like instances (p); yet taking it only as a bare possible supposition, contrived on purpose to argue from, the reafoning on it as a supposition, will be still as intelligible, as if it were real; and the degenerating of the one appearance into the other equally possible to our way of conception; which is all that is intended by it. For it is by no means pretended that this may be the only way, by which separate spirits may affect us in our prefent state.

XL. What is here faid with respect to the objects of fight, is eafily applicable to those of hearing: these invisible beings have the fame power over the fense and organs of hearing, as they have over those of seeing. In fleep we as well hear words and fentences spoken, as see objects of fight represented; and it is as conceivable how our dreams should degenerate into possession, in this respect, as in that. Therefore I shall venture farther to fay, that fome of those relations of apparitions we meet with in Historians,

Vik ad se redeunt, permoti corporis æstu. whether K 3

⁽p) Multi depugnant, gemitufque doloribus edunt : -And

whether the facts be true or false, have nothing inconfistent in the telling. For those fpirits may, upon fome important occasions, be licensed so to affect the sensory, according to the exigency of the affair, that all the scene of vision, which is then thought to have an existence from without, may be the effect of impressions made on the brain only. Thus, for instance, that apparition mentioned before, which Plutarch tells us was offered to Brutus, before he came over from Afia, and came again to him the night before the battle of Philippi; which is there described as a dreadful spectre, of a monstrous and ugly appearance; and that noise which he heard as of one entering his tent; and thefe words, it is faid to have spoke to him. "I " am, O Brutus, thy evil Genius; but thou " shalt see me again near Philippi (q);"

⁽q) Brutus was fitting in his tent, musing, and confidering fomething with himself, when he thought he heard fome body entering; and upon looking about he faw δεινήν η άλλοκοδον όψιν έκφύλε σώμαδος, σιωση παρεςωτος αὐτω· and asking unconcernedly, What Being it was, God or Man; and what it wanted with him? The spectre answered, o oos, & Beste, dainw xaπός όψει δέ με περί Φιλίππες.

might all be but inward representation upon the fenfory: and any other person present might neither have heard or feen any thing. However, this is suggested as probable only, or easily conceivable, from what is said above of the like spectres and visions offered to us in our fleep; and the easy transition there is, from making us fee them in fleep, to the making us fee them while awake; and because this is more conformable to our own experience and to philosophy, than the affuming condensed bodies of air. Yet it is not meant as if there were any thing inconfistent even in that supposition. Either of these ways is more conceivable, than that by which his friend Cassius accounted for this vision the next morning, when Brutus went and consulted him upon it, from the notions of Epicurus, in which there is nothing intelligible, and fome things contradictory (r): or the way that Hobbes hath accounted

⁽r) "Αμα δ' ήμερα τραπόμενος προς τον Κάσσιον, έφραζε την όψιν ό δε, τοῖς Ἐπικέρε λόγοις χρώμενος, η ωερί τέτων έθος έχων διαφέρεσθαι ωρός τον Βρέτον. Ημήτερος έτος (είωεν) ω Βρέτε, λόγος, ως ε πώλα πάσχομεν άληθως, εδ όρωμεν, κ. λ. As if the foul

accounted for it fince, who makes cold produce dreams and visions of fear, without either reason or experience to support his affertion; and for no other end, I think, but to obviate this difficulty (s.) For, as was argued just before (N° 37.) allowing that

did not suffer, what it thinks it suffers; or had not the ideas it hath. And afterwards he says, the soul of man hath in itself both the art, and materials, to make such visions; as if it acted, without knowing it acted; or absurdly laid a plot to terrify itself; as hath been argued before. Surely this vision was but a bad instance to apply Epicurus's notion to, and yet this is in part the notion that still obtains. It is that which Cicero salls in with, which was spoken to before; so that more needs not be said of it.

(s) "And fince dreams are caused by the distemper of fome of the inward parts of the body; divers distempers must need cause different dreams. And hence it is that lying cold breedeth dreams of fear, and raiseth the thought and image of some fearful object —We read of Marcus Brutus, &c." Leviath. ch. 2. He makes Brutus to be sleeping; but Plutarch tells us, he had slept the first part of the night, immediately after eating; and had risen to digest something in his own mind. So that it had the disadvantage to Hobbes's scheme of being a waking vision, and that without any previous distemper outward, or inward, that we read of. But it is convenient sometimes to wrest a circumstance.

we faw terrifying and fearful objects, only when we were cold, which yet is the most unsup-

Dion also was sitting meditating and thoughtful, in the porch of his own house, when the spectre appeared to him.

I shall give the relation of it in Plutarch's own words, fince there is something very strange and remarkable in it. It happened while the Affassins were contriving his death, a little before he was cruelly murdered-Συνις αμένης δε της εωιδελης (says the Author) φάσμα γίνε αι τω Δίωνι μέγα κ τεραδωδες ετύγχανε μεν γάρ όψε της ημέρας καθεζόμενος έν σας άδι της οἰκίας, μόνος ων προς έαυτον την διάνοιαν έξαίφνης δε, ψόφου γενομένου ωρος θατέρω ωέραι της 50ας, αποδλέψας, έτι Φωτός ονίος, είδε γιωαϊκα μεγάλην, σολή μεν κ προσώπω μηδεν έριννύος τραγικής παραλλάττουσαν, σαίρουσαν δε καλύνθρω τινί τίω οίκίαν εκπλαγείς δε δεινώς κ περίφοδος γενόμενος, μελεπέμψαλο τές φίλες, κ διηγείτο την όψιν αυτοίς κ παραμένειν έδειτο κ συννυκίερέυσιν, πανδάπασιν έκς αδικώς έχων, κι δεδοικώς μή πάλιν είς όψιν αὐτῷ μονοθένλι τὸ τέρας ἀΦίκηλαι.

It was far from being Dion's character to be easily shaken and dispirited; and his being in such dread less the vision should appear to him again, and his begging his friends, to remain with him in the night-time, hath something terrible in it. Men who do not fear death, may yet fear something more than death itself. What is it that puts the soul in such an agony in these cases?

unsupported assertion imaginable; is it not quite a different thing, that those objects should

Or why should they happen before bloody and tragical events? Or not happen at the approach of natural death? Let one of those men, who affect to call themselves strong spirits [les esprits forts] suppose himself in Dion's place, and then think whether he could be proof against terror from supernatural causes. Did never 2 dream shake him, divest him of all his boasted intrepidity and firmness of spirit? If so, he may draw a consequence from hence, how little the human foul could be a match for certain causes that may be in the universe. He hath not taken the just measure of his own courage, who thinks he could be a match for any thing; and yet he who reckons all terrors false and vain, ought to think himself a match for every thing. I own chance and atoms, or an unguided world of matter, is but an unpleasing prospect at best; and a man who was seriously persuaded of fuch a world, would need no ordinary flock of courage on many occasions; but in such distresses, these Philosophers begin to think of their Adverfary's arguments, and wish at least that they may be true, which fhews they are not proof against the fears of their own scheme. But there is something more dreadful, than chance and atoms still behind. In a word, there is a great difference between the fear of death, and other kind of fears which the foul may feel, and is often subjected to; and which all the fortitude of human courage is not able to stand, let men boast as they will. Otherwise let them shew

should be exhibited to the soul, by a defigning intelligent being, upon the occasion of cold; and that they should be produced by cold, as an efficient cause? Cold is but a mere want of something requisite, retarding the briskness of the motions in our bodies. Heat would have been a more probable cause. Indeed, not the philosophy of the Sceptic alone, but of the generality of men, is full of negative efficients! It would

thew me how it is possible, that the soul may remain unterrified even in a dream; or that it may not be placed in as weak and dejecting circumstances while we are awake. A man may bravely fight his Enemies, and not be conquered even in death; but in the case we are speaking of, there is no kind of arms with which we could defend ourselves, and our fright proceeds from sinding ourselves every way in the power of some being superior to us.

I know not how Mr. Hobbes would have accounted for this instance, if he had tried his hypothesis upon it. Dion was awake when this happened to him, and thinking on something quite different from that which so suddenly surprised him. These circumstances, and the character of the man, far from having a weak or visionary head, make it difficult to find an invasion. No men in antiquity are less liable to the suspicion of weakness and credulity, than Brutus and Dion; or rather farther removed from those follies, the Sceptic seems to

would not, I think, be a greater abfurdity. if we should say that a horse, if he be sound, can but walk, or gallop at most: but if he be lame, it is not impossible but that he may. fometimes fly! For it feems equally abfurd, to suppose that our bodies, which when best disposed can only be moved mechanically, should, by their indisposition, become the cause of life and spontaneity.

XLI. As to the particular, Why these terrifying objects should be frequently exhibited to the foul, when the body labours under some disorder; reasons neither contradictory, nor improbable might be offered; which therefore, from the confiderations in N° 35. take off the weight of this scruple. These spirits may possibly be under a restraint, and wait only an opportunity to gratify their enmity to us. Let us consider the disease called the Incubus, or night-mare. which many persons are tormented with intheir fleep (t). It is generally accompanied with

complain of. Plutarch fays they were 'Avdess in Goodesis η φιλόσοφοι, η ωρός έδεν άκροσφαλείς, ούδ' εύάλωδοι wasoc.

⁽t) See the word Ephialtes, in Mr. Chambers's Cyclopedia.

with frightful, 'ghastly apparitions, which are then obtruded on the imagination; fo that the party is made to fancy that the distemper itself proceeds from their pressing him down with a weight like to stifle him. And for this very reason, the Latins call this disorder the Incubus; as if we should say, the overwhelmer, or oppressor: and the Greek name, ἐφιάλλης, imports much the same thing. And this, I believe, is allowed to be a casual distemper of the brain, by which the animal spirits are obstructed. But now the bodily indisposition here, and the disagreeable vision made to accompany it, are two very different things: and as it would be absurd to make the disorder of the material organ the efficient cause of the apparitions that are exhibited along with it; for these are often ugly phantoms, which to fright us the more, appear to have bad defigns upon

pedia, or New Dictionary; where an account of a surprizing instance of this disease is given. Macrobius says of it—In hoc genere [formiorum] est equálics, quem publica persuasio quiescentes opinatur invadere, & pondere suo pressos ac sentientes gravare. In som. Scip. lib. 1. cap. 3. He means the ugly phantoms, which are made to accompany the pain selt.

us, threaten us, wrestle with us, get us down, all which infer a defigning, intelligent cause: so, their being exhibited along with it, and adapted to it, shews us, I think, that these beings wait for, and catch the opportunity of the indisposition of the body, to represent at the same time something terrifying also to the mind. Farther, we may observe, that the more pregnant instances, where people are subjected to illusions of the fancy, and fuch things as disorder their imagination, generally happen after the brain hath been discomposed with anger, fear, disappointment, or other violent passions; unquestionable examples of which might be given, if one needed to affign them: but they occur to every man's own observation. And it is, I think, because the previous indisposition generally gives an opportunity to these beings to affect the imagination, that the disorder of the brain stands in common discourse, for this consequent trouble; and that we reckon it the efficient cause of these visions, having nothing readier to fay. I shall venture to give an instance, which feems to confirm this, related both by Plutarch, in the life of Antony, and App. Alexandrinus, andrinus, in his history of the Syrian War, (if the latter may be reputed a different work.) Antony's army in their return from Parthia, were in great scarcity of provisions; and among other roots and herbs, which their necessity forced them to have recourse to, without knowing their natures, they eat of a certain poisonous berb, after which they became delirious, with this particular kind of phrenfy, that, forgetting all other kind of business, they thought it of the last consequence, to turn over, and dig up all the stones they could find in their march: and the Historians say, the whole field was filled with the soldiers, bowing down, digging up, and removing the stones (u.) And in this occupation numbers of them miserably perished. Now shall we say that this, or any other herb, had a quality to possess their minds with this abfurd notion? It is cer-

⁽u) Τραπόμενοι δε προς λάχανα η ρίζας,
— ήψανος πίας επι θάναον διά μανίας άγκοης
ο γάρ Φαγών είδεν εμέμνηο τῶν ἄλλων, είδε εγίνωσκεν,
εν δε έργον είχεν, κινείν η ερέφειν πάνοα λίθον, ώς τι
μεγάλης σπουδής άξιον πρατομήμω. ην δε μεςον το
πεδίον κεκυφότων χαμάζε, η τες λίθους περρορυτιόνων
η μεθιςάνων.

tain it could do nothing, beyond indisposing their bodies, by a change of the parts of matter in them. Nor can this, or other like instances, I conceive, be accounted for, but by allowing that these beings laid hold of the indisposition, which the poison had wrought in their bodies, to occupy their minds with this strange delirium.

These considerations, together with what was mentioned before, N° 38. make it probable that fuch beings lay hold of the indifposition of the body, to distress the foul, and infult human reason, by occupying the imagination unnaturally: that the feveral kinds of the disorders of reason (in which we suppose the soul itself to be distracted) are but the effect of this unnatural occupation, by spirits, who have not power enough to invade the quiet of the foul, till its organ be previously disordered: that sleep, whose first and greatest effect is to darken the region of memory, and all former impressions (v), is one

⁽v) I have before observed in the Notes (c) and (d) that Lucretius was gravelled to account how the memory should be darkened, and yet a material foul be still awake.

one of those disorders which affords them most frequent opportunity, as recurring every night: that if it were not for the right disposition of the organ at other times, and that the perceptivity is regularly solicited and occupied by the natural action of external objects, they would never cease to torment the soul: and that, even perhaps at certain other times, when the organ is not indisposed, the curb that restrains their power may be taken off, for reasons that cannot but be good and wise; so that, notwithstanding the presence of real external objects acting on the sensor, they may terrify the soul with unpleasing sights, visible

He could not deny either part of the appearance, and at last is forced to break the knot which he could not loofe.

— Cum jam destiterint ea sensibus usurpari At reliquas tamen esse vias in mente patenteis, Quà possint eadem rerum simulacra venire.

Lib. 4. ver. 971.

It is strange to conceive some passages lest open in the soul, while the rest are shut; or how one part of a material soul should be assep, and another awake. It seems the several parts of the soul relieve one another sleeping by turns; as the Poets tell us of Argus's eyes,

Inde suis vicibus capiebant bina quietem:
Cætera servabunt, atque in statione manebant.

Yol. II. L only

only to those against whom they are thus let out; as the Poets tell us Pentheus and Orestes were pursued by visible furies, the one for facrilege, and the other for parricide (x). Upon the whole then, as there are manifest contradictions in any other account that can be given; fo there is in all this fuch a degree of probability, as makes the mind rest satisfied with the reasonableness of the supposition, which is enough for taking off the objection in hand, according to the remark that was made No 35. The foul cannot have a disorder lodged in itself, nor be subject to any disease; a man who confiders the simple nature of it, will never affirm this: and when he farther confiders the only remaining way in which matter can affect it, which is by deadening its activity

(x) Eumenidum veluti demens videt agmina Pentheus— Aut Agamemnonius scenis agitatus Orestes, Armatum facibus matrem, & serpentibus atris. Cùm sugit; ultricésque sedent in limine diræ.

Virg. Æneid. lib. 4.

And again, though upon a different occasion he expresses the same thought, saying

Apparent diræ facies inimicaque Trojæ
Numina.

and powers; he will scarce be able to hinder himself from assenting to these several particulars (y). It is certain these disorders of reason

(y) The foul can admit of no difease from matter. as having no parts to be disordered. It can suffer no alteration in its own substance, if that substance is not annihilated, as was shewn in fect. III. Vol. I. And if it should be contended, that a simple substance might be affected with disease, or disorder, at least by immaterial beings, that would still allow these beings to be the cause of the disorder, out of a too eager defire to shew that the foul might be capable of disease in its own nature. We would have the foul to grow up, to decay, to fleep, to be mad, to be drunk: who fees not that all these are ridiculous fancies too gross to be entertained concerning a fimple, uncompounded fubstance? If the foul were mad, or had the difease lodged in itself; what could cure it again? The vertue of herbs perhaps! These could only effect a change in the disposition of parts, which it hath not. It would therefore still remain under this diforder, which must be essential (if I may fo express it) to its simple substance; and we could not conceive any alteration, rectification, or change wrought in it, but by the power of the Being who created it. Thus it would be incurable by the power of all fecond causes: and that very argument brought to prove that it is delirious and mad, to wit, that it may be cured again, shews plainly, as it appears to me, that the diforder is not lodged in itself; fince then it would reason appear after grief, love, or some other great disappointment have discomposed the brain. And why should they appear then? — When we consider that cause which is the power, [the mover] in all mechanical motions, whether regular or difordered; there is no refusing this conclusion concerning these beings, without formally ascribing the effect of disordering our reason, to the very Highest Being, as has been faid before. If the blood, or any other fluid, or matter in the body, moving after a new and unwonted manner, were the fole cause of this disorder, (which indeed is impossible to be conceived, if we call to mind what was faid above, N° 25.) the First Cause being the only mover in these motions, this abfurd and impious conclusion would be unavoidable.

And then, if the simple nature of the foul can admit of no disorder, or disease in

be incurable. And fince dead matter could never affect it thus; there is no other cause left in the nature of things to produce this appearance, but that which I have assigned. It is a self-evident truth that, if a thing can admit of no change or alteration in its own nature, all change must be external to it.

its own constitution; the power of medicine cannot be faid to cure it, as it cures the body: So that the infinuation [mentem fanari, corpus ut ægrum, cernimus,] is fallacious and equivocal in every respect; as was promised to be shewn in N° 11. Sect. V. Vol. I. Would it not be absurd to say, That the sour is mad every night, and that awaking in the morning cures it again of its phrenfy? And yet there is as much reason to affirm this of dreaming, as of any other circumstance it can be in. We are injurious in debasing the nature of our fouls all manner of ways. We would have the foul material: if it be not, yet we would ascribe the perfection of rational thinking to matter: and if that cannot be granted, we would then have the foul capable of disorder in its own constitution. But the feveral particulars above, if feriously considered, ought to correct our prejudices. The argument may be reduced to a narrow compass. The inactivity of matter infers the immateriality of an active living being; the immateriality infers its simple and uncompounded nature; and its being simple and uncompounded infers that it cannot be liable to any disorder or disease in itself. The L 3 ' disorder disorder of matter can only hinder its activity; and if we should say, it may be affected with disorder or disease from immaterial beings, we incur the thing we would deny by this affertion.

XLII. That this notion of our dreams degenerating into a waking possession is not entirely new, we may see from those Authors, who have written on this subject before. Whatever way a man accounts for these two phænomena, he will readily give the fame folution for both; there being fuch an affinity between them. Aristotle makes but a very little variation of general hypothesis, to account for that which he calls ecstafy; as hath been observed in No 38. and in this he fays men foresee things to come, as well as those whom he calls eviguονειροι. The place is remarkable. And Mr. Locke, after giving a definition of dreams in his way, adds-" And whether that " which we call ecstafy, be not dreaming with the eyes open, I leave to be ex-" amined (2)." By which way of speaking it

⁽z) Having described sensation, remembrance, attention, he adds——" And dreaming itself is, the having

it is plain he thought them nearly related. Hobbes supposes the same visions may happen to us while waking, as sleeping; viz. in great distempers of the organs; and proposes his solution of dreaming as including this particular case in it; of which below. And how explicit Lucretius is in this, hath been noticed above, No 10. of Sect. V. Vol. I. Et quæ res nobis vigilantibus obvia menteis terrificet—Indeed fright and terror is the general concomitant of these appearances; for but sew persons, with Horace's Argive, are entertained then with gay sights, and pleas-

having ideas (whilft the outward fenses are stopped, 66 fo that they receive not outward objects with their " usual quickness) in the mind, not suggested by any external objects, or known occasion; nor under any choice or conduct of the understanding at all. And " whether that which we call ecstasy, Sc." Let Arifotle's definition of a dream, that it is only the oxidarua. as in Nº 6. be remembered here; and it is as abfurd that the bare representation, or things offered, should be under the conduct or choice of the understanding, as it is that we should see what we please only, when we look out of our window to the neighbouring fields. As to the foul's own thoughts in dreaming, See No 6. and what is cited from Aristotle. The foul reasons full as confistently, as an unexperienced stranger would do, about new and unknown objects.

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ing objects. However Lucretius's fear was left the foul should not be dead enough; and he proposes his folution to cure that. Again, Aristotle would have us believe, that the illusions obtruded on the imagination, while the person is feverish, arise from mechanical motions excited in the fenfory; by telling us that the living creatures fometimes feen then on the walls, are nothing but a few strokes, or draughts, which bear a distant resemblance (a). But he should have remembered, that we hear and fee things then, though all is dark and filent round us. We put some questions, and answer others, as if fome body was talking with us. But have founds their images to represent them, or are those images visible in the dark? Such circumstances plainly shew a cause more powerful than a few strokes on the wall of the chamber, dealing with the imagination. And in the former part of the paragraph, he affigns the like poor and unfatisfying reasons for distractions arising from love, grief, fear, &c. From hence then it appears, I think,

that

⁽a) Διο κή τοις πυρέτθουσιν ενίθε φαίνεθαι, ζωα εν σοις τοίχοις, ἀπο μικράς δμοιότηθος των γραμμών συνθι-Βεμένων. cap. 2. de Infomm.

that if these Authors had accounted for this phænomenon by the agency of living invisible Beings, they would have concluded that waking spectres were also formed and represented by them; since they thought dreams, possession or ecstasy, and apparitions, all proceeded from the same cause, and were to be solved the same way.

XLIII. As to what is urged next, that these spirits must be ignorant, absurd, idle, weak, &c. otherwise our dreams would not be so trisling and inconsistent; a little consideration will shew us, that they are not such, and may yet represent our dreams as such. Their knowledge surely is surprizingly great, with regard to our nature and constitution. They must understand, not only how spirit acts on matter, since they themselves so act on our organs (b); but also how matter acts

on

⁽b) I have all along supposed, that impressions are first made on the sensory when we dream; and that the soul is made percipient of the representations, by means of these impressions; just as it is of external objects, while we are awake, by like impressions. The reasons for this are, first, the authority of those writers, whom I have cited on this subject, they all suppose motion and material

on spirit, since they so affect these organs, that they affect the soul, in the manner by them designed. They must have an intuition of the secrets of material nature, to us inscrutable in our present state; and know the occult methods which the God of nature hath instituted, by which the nerves affect

terial action the cause of dreaming; and therefore that the organ is primarily affected. And then the manner of our reminiscence of dreams; we remember them when awakened, by the help of those impressions; just as we do other things: a man's face, for instance, is the fame way remembered in both cases, and leaves the same impressions. Lastly, that the soul should be directly affected by these spirits, and the impressions by which we remember, reflected back by it on the fenfory, recedes farther from our philosophy, and manner of conception, and the method of nature, which God hath instituted, which is the very reverse of this. Yet if any should contend, that this last method is the true one; it would rather heighten, than diminish the wonderful power and knowledge of these beings, that they should effect the same things, by a contrary method to that which the God of nature hath instituted, and more strongly prove all that is inferred in this whole section. To grant that the matter of the sensory is not first and directly acted upon, would be to affert, I think, instead of denying, an immaterial cause of dreams.

the

the fenfory, and it affects the foul; fince they imitate these so well, that the natural objects themselves could not produce the representation more to the life. If we justly admire the subtilty of God's work; what may we think of imitating or copying it? Can this be the work of chance, or unintelligent mechanism? I really think it is a species of Atheism to affirm it. The divisibility of matter foon carries the fine operations of nature out of our view; because we receive information, only through organs of the fame matter. It is impossible therefore such organs should help us to discover the nice workmanship and contexture of their own parts, or any thing in any other object below particles of a certain fize in themselves. No optical improvement will ever effect this. Such is the necessary imperfection of material organs: but the manner in which vegetation is performed; the whole theory of the animal œconomy; the fecret springs of motion in our bodies; the imperceptible tremor of each little fibre; what share it hath in producing the effect; and how it is to be otherwise struck, that it may produce such a variation from the common method, as best

fuits the representation they design, (insomuch that the very deviations and monstrous ugly things they represent, seem to shew most skill;) these things, I say, must lye open and pervious to their view; since their perception of them doth not depend upon particles of any size.

XLIV. Their power and knowledge doth not reach to the exciting of vision only; they affect the auditory nerves themselves, or that part which those nerves affect, so as to produce the same sensation in the soul, and excite the fame ideas in it, as if the words of that language which we understand, were audibly pronounced, to the hearing of bystanders. This is a strange appearance, and full of conviction! It cannot feem to us to be the effect of ordinary power and knowledge, if we confider the matter attentively. It is in this particular that reason itself is represented, and rational ideas conveyed: which could not be done but by a rational being. Articulate founds stand for ideas; and these confistently put together are the effect of ratiocination. What cause but a rational one could do this? Moreover, it is not because the

the fame beings could not do the fame thing, in any other, or all other languages; for. men of all languages hear these internal discourses, each in his own, without an interpreter: but because we could not understand another. Thus the knowledge of languages, which is accounted so high an accomplishment among men, which costs them somuch pains, and confumes fo much of their time, though possessed by these beings in perfection, costs them no study; nor is to be reckoned any part of their natural endowments; fince by nature they do not stand in need of it (for separate spirits do not communicate perceptions by articulate founds) but is as small an accessory to those perfections which are natural to them; as any thing we know can be to their knowledge. What shall we say, when the soul is made to read feveral coherent fentences of a book in a dream, which is no more than fome people really, not to fay frequently, experience (c)? The foul certainly doth not lay thefe

⁽c) I shall here give the observations of a late ingenious Author on this particular, from Spectator 487. concerning which I spoke something N° 17. above.

these sentences in print, and then read them, as if it knew nothing of its own industry, and

But in dreams it is wonderful to observe, with what a sprightliness and alacrity she [the foul] exerts herfelf. The flow in speech make unpremeditated harangues. or converse readily in languages that they are but little acquainted with. The grave abound in pleasantries, the dull in repartees and points of wit. There is not a more painful action of the mind than invention; yet in dreams it works with that eafe and activity, that we are not Sensible when the faculty is employed. For instance, I believe every one some time or other dreams, that he is reading papers, books, or letters; in which case the invention prompts so readily, that the mind is imposed upon, and mistakes its own suggestions for the compositions of another. Although he is mistaken, as to the efficient cause here; yet it is not to be supposed, that a person of such candor would have written so, without experience of the things in which he inflances. But if the example of No 7. on which the argument there proceeds, had been fo full and explicit, it would possibly have been suspected, as contrived on purpose. Therefore I have all along chosen to argue from cases a little under the truth. The foul could not act in fleep, and not be conscious of its own action. And if what it is confcious of doing itself, be above what it could do while awake, as speaking readily in a language it is but little acquainted with, haranguing, &c. which is perhaps not impossible; I should think

Phænomenon of Dreaming. 159 and action (d). All Mr. Locke's reasoning, against a man's thinking without being consci-

even this could not be accounted for, without interesting some superior cause: since certainly its own natural powers cannot be rendered greater, or quicker in sleep than otherwise.

(d) There was a particular objection raised against the argument in No 6. which because it refers to something spoken of in this paragraph, I have reserved to be considered here, as I promised in the Note (i). It is as follows. "Against your argument brought to prove that the foul itself cannot be the cause of troubleof fom representations in dreaming, there seems place of for an exception; that by the force of its own imase ginative power it can represent such things to itself while awake; as converfing with others, being upon a precipice, recalling the memory of imminent danger, and the like; which it can work up to cause trou-" blesom passions, such as fear and horror; Why then is may it not be supposed, by the force of imagination, which exerts it felf in fleep, to do the same? There is a memorable story to this purpose, of a Gentleman who in the time of fnow rode over the Lake of Geneva; and being told at his arrival in the citv, of the danger he was in, it made fuch an imor pression upon him, that he instantly died. It is owned that in your forty fourth paragraph, there are some instances, which it seems not easy to re-" duce to this supposition."

But

ous of any thought at all (in which it is strange if he had any adversary) may be applied directly

.But with much fubmission, when the foul represents to itself while we are awake, objects of fear and horror, it is conscious that it doth this itself; in sleep it is quite otherwise: whence there is no parity to infer that it is equally active in both cases. That the soul exerts its imaginative power in fleep, without knowing that it doth it, is the point in debate, and ought to be proved. The instance of the Gentleman who died upon reflecting on the danger he was in, feems quite different, and must be differently accounted for. Allowing this particular example to be literally true (fince many fuch stories are told) the reason of his sudden death, seems to be the fame, as when one dies with a fudden excessive joy. There are two instances of this kind given by Livy, after the overthrow at Thrasimenus: Two Mothers having heard that their fons were killed in the battle, upon feeing them return fafe, dropt down dead with the fudden excess of joy. [---Fæminarum præcipue & gaudia insignia erant, & luctus. Unam in ipsa porta, sospite filio, repente oblato, in conspectu ejus expirasse ferunt; alteram, cui mors filii falso nunciata erat, mæstam sedentem domi, ad primum conspectum redeuntis filii gaudio nimio exanimatam, lib. 22. cap. 7.] And accordingly fome caution is to be used in acquainting persons with unexpected news that are extremely good, or extremely bad, lest the bare relation of them should prove fatal. The reason of this I leave for others to assign; but

Phænomenon of Dreaming. 161 rectly to this case. To be able to do this, it ought to be two distinct Agents, as has been said

it feems to be a sudden and instantaneous effect, where there is no room for working up the memory of past danger, to cause the troublesom passion of fear and horror. as the objection supposes. If a man should read a letter. look upon a precipice, hear an account of the death of a friend, &c. which should have this fatal effect upon him ; the foul would be paffive in receiving these impressions which produce it. Perhaps the quickness of the surprize causes the foul [mechanically, and necessarily] to make fuch an effort on, or give fuch a shock, (if I may so express it) to the animal spirits, as stops at once all the vital motions. Something like this feems to happen. though in a less degree, on several other sudden surprizes; the body starts, or is suddenly shaken with this effort or shock, the heart palpitates for some time, and the pulse beats quick; all which it is impossible to prevent; the foul is passive or necessary in this case, and doth not work up the passions. And from this last particular we may conceive how the constitution of the brain itself may be disordered or shattered, (so to speak) and the exercise of reason be disturbed for ever afterwards; as in many cases we see it is, by sudden fear, love, grief, disappointment, &c. concerning which I have spoke No 41.

In all these cases then, the soul is first acted upon by some object which causes these subsequent emotions, that prove stal or hurtful; but this cannot be appli-Vol. II,

faid before. And to make these books, and this written subject, the effect of chance, or of any cause working mechanically, is some-

cable to shew that the foul may present to itself painful. and uneafy objects in fleep, without knowing that it doth fo. It is here likewise first acted upon by some object from without; and the objection, when rightly confidered, feems rather to confirm than weaken the argument it is brought against. To fay the force of imagination exerts itself in sleep without the consciousness of the foul, is to suppose the foul unconscious in its operations; in which case we may affirm or deny any thing concerning it at pleasure; or if in sleep the imaginative power exerts itself, without the will and confciousness of the imagining Being [the foul] it must be a distinct agent, instead of a faculty belonging to an agent. And not to be conscious of one part of its own consciousnefs, at the fame time precifely that it is conscious of another part of it, is altogether abfurd, and destroys the evidence which arises from self-consciousness, as hath been often faid. If the instances in this paragraph do not agree with the supposition in the objection, (as is candidly owned) why should any other agree with it, where there is the same distinction and diversity of consciensness? If the soul doth not form and present to itfelf the sentences in a Book, why should it form and prefent to itself, any other object seen in sleep, in beholding which it is conscious of being passive, and often involuntary? But of all these particulars enough hath been faid above.

thing like Ennius's Annals being compiled by a fortuitous jumble of letters. To be reduced to fay any thing like this, is a fign that a man hath a bad cause in hand; and can allow himself to say things, without being convinced of them; which is the worst disposition in the world for finding out truth. And such considerations as these made me say, No 10. that the same kind of argument, that proves the material world was made by a living, intelligent cause, proves also that our dreams are contrived, and represented to us by such a cause.

XLV. Thus it by no means appears, that these Beings are ignorant, or weak; and from this it follows, that we cannot say they are absurd or contradictory; though we cannot find out the reason of every incoherent scene they present to the soul in sleep. They may have the spightful design to endeavour to insult and consound human reason by some of them. They cannot excite in us contradictory, or self-destructive ideas; for the wildest ideas in sleep are as consistent and real ideas, because actually perceived, as the soberest ideas we have

have while awake. But they may excite in us ideas inconsistent with the nature of external material objects; and therefore with the ideas these excite in us, designing to entangle and perplex our reason. However, it will no more follow from this, that the idea of a monster, with one eye as large as a shield, many hands, and so tall that a tower might stand between his legs; with as many other deviations from the present form and stature of a man's body, as we please to add; it will no more follow, I fay, that fuch an idea is contradictory, because it is not the idea of an ordinary man; than that the idea of a man is contradictory, because it is not the idea of fuch a monster. Both ideas are equally real, though the objects of both do not equally exist ab extra. It would not be a just inference, that the idea of a Negro is a contradictory idea, because it is not the idea of a white man: and the other is no better. This objection from the contradictoriness of our dreams, founds big at first, and feems very unpromising to be accounted for; and yet it hath nothing terrible in it but the bare found; only we are too often furprized, and grant a thing through inattention, which we should

should not. Nay farther, we may observe that there is no impossibility, why such a monster as is just now supposed, might not exist à parte naturæ. Whatever is conceivable, may be performed by some power; and nothing is a mark of impossibility, but a felf-destru-Ctiveness in the idea; such as, that a part may be bigger than the whole. And no Being can prompt us with fuch an idea, whether afleep or awake. For it is at first impossible to the conception. If it were possible to conceive fuch an idea, the object of it might be made to exist from without. Thus these powers may endeavour to confound human reason fophistically, by furprifing us through inattention, to allow that an object feen, inconfistent with another real object, is absolutely inconfistent; and to render suspected the foundations of evidence and certainty, by engaging us to consent to false facts and unreal appearances in the unguarded hours of fleep: But we may fee through the artifice when we are awake; and it is our own fault if we take part with them then (e).

XLVI. This

⁽e) It will perhaps be faid that all this concerning the invidious nature of these beings, is only a supposition.

XLVI. This imputation on the rational nature of the foul, from the inconfistency of

But I answer, 1. It is not a contradictory supposition, and therefore, is sufficient to account for the possibility of the point objected to. 2. It is not my supposition, but as old as any thing whereof we have records. Plutarch tells us it was τῶν πάνυ παλαιῶν λόγος, that there were φαῦλα δαιμόνια ἢ βάσκανα, προσφθονενία τοῖς ἀγαθοῖς ἀνδράσι, &c. I might bring many instances to shew that the word δαίμων, as it is used by the best writers of antiquity, constantly infers this supposition; and that from hence came the words εὐδαίμων and κακοδαίμων, to express a fortunate or unhappy man. I might give Hessod's authority;

Τοὶ μὲν δαίμονές ἐἐσι Διὸς μεγάλε διὰ βελὰς, ἘΘλοὶ, ἐπιχθόνιοι, Φύλακες θνητῶν ἀνθεώπων.

But, lastly, I would beg leave to observe that this is not a bare supposition. For as the existence of such Beings in general, cannot be called a supposition, when it is proved by natural phænomena; so the diversity of their natures cannot be called a supposition, when it is shewn by the diversity of these Phænomena. It is from the nature of the effect, that we come to know the nature of the cause in any case. Would it not be absurd to ascribe hurtful effects to a beneficent and good cause? and still

of our dreams, will thus appear fufficiently taken off, if what hath been faid in feveral parts above be here remembered. For, first, these scenes are only inconfistent, considered with respect to objects that really exist; but not absolutely contradictory, as hath been shewn just before. Secondly, They are not the work of the foul itself, but involuntarily obtruded upon it; and it is as passive, and as much under a necessity of beholding them, as of beholding the greatest beauties in the creation. Thirdly, It hath been shewn not only convenient, but even necessary, upon the account of the body, that the region of memory should be covered up in sleep, so that these objects, though fantastical, must ap-

more abfurd to ascribe these effects to the very first Cause? And yet there is a plain necessity of falling into this absurdity, without allowing a cause of a different nature. Men do not consider that by denying secondary and imperfect causes, they load the perfectest of Beings with all that is mean and unworthy. The truth is, they have not been accustomed to think any cause at all necessary; and therefore reckon a man extremely unreasonable to pretend to insist on the necessity of a cause to produce an effect; or of a different cause to produce an effect of quite an opposite nature.

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pear real. Fourthly, The foul may be made to behold the like fantastical objects, even while we are awake, and to take them for real. The objections feem to make it a reproach on the foul, that any Being in nature should be superior to it, or able to impose upon, or terrify it. Why should not Brutus or Dion, have taken the visions that were offered to them for something real; fince as real impressions were made on the sensory to produce them, as if the objects had existed externally? These impressions are the marks from which we infer the real external existence of any object at any time. Let a man fuppose that like imaginary scenes were offered to him, and then weigh the matter fairly with himself: if he thinks he could not be deceived, he must suppose himself to have some supernatural faculty of distinguishing, which men are not endued with. But allowing he should not be imposed upon, but know the objects feen to be only imaginary; what would he think of fuch a vision that was thus offered to him? He must certainly conclude that fome very extraordinary cause produced it, and perhaps would then be no less terrified than if it were otherwife

wife. And laftly, what the foul itself does or thinks in fleep, is much the fame with what it would do or think in like circumstances if we were awake. And indeed if a man will consider the different accidents of this kind that happen to persons both while asleep and while awake, (and the latter perhaps without any previous diforder of the body) he will conceive it very possible, that our waking thoughts might be all as inconfistent, as now our dreams are; and our thoughts in fleep as confiftent as our thoughts are now by day. So incompetent a principle is the matter of the body, or the right disposition of that matter, to ascribe the perfection of rational thinking to! Mr. Locke, in a place taken notice of above (f), feems to charge this as consequent upon the affertion of some of his adversaries; and yet immediately after, I'think, he makes it appear to be his own opinion. He fays, "This I " would willingly be satisfied in, Whether " the foul when it thinks thus apart, and " as it were separate from the body, acts " less rationally than when conjointly with " it, or no: if its separate thoughts are less (f) Sect. IV. No 21. Vol. I. Note (9).

" rational,

" rational, then These Men must say that the foul owes the perfection of rational thinking to the body: if it does not, 'tis a wonder that our dreams should be, for " the most part, so frivolous and irrational." Here this absurdity is first made a consequence of what These Men say; and immediately it is furmifed that the quality of our dreams shews this absurdity to be fact. This is really a strange way of proceeding, to shuffle over the odiousness of an infinuation upon others; and in case they should disown it, and that circumstance from which he would infer it, (viz. that the foul thinks without being conscious of it) to endeavour to prove it, by an appearance, which he has ready at hand. These Men deny that the soul thinks less or more rationally, without being conscious of it; and therefore any confequence of fuch a position: but who is it here that appeals to the frivolousness and irrationality of our dreams to shew, that the foul owes the perfection of rational thinking to the body? Mr. Locke should have told us what were his own fentiments of this affair; and, if it were an absurdity, shewn us how it was to be avoided; but first 3

first to endeavour to turn it over upon his adversaries, as something very unjustifiable, which therefore shewed the absurdity of their opinion, and then to endeavour to prove it, was altogether fingular. Here he fupposes that the foul itself produces all it hears and fees in fleep, that it thinks apart and feparately at that time, and exerts the utmost perfection it is capable of, when destitute of the help of the body. How unjust and inaccurate a representation of the

appearance is this?

This phænomenon of fleep and dreaming therefore, which hath been made use of to exalt the nature of matter, and depress the perfection of the foul, rightly confidered shews the very contrary. It is upon the account of the body that the activity of the foul is restrained, that the region of memory is covered up, and by the means of the body that the foul is liable to be imposed upon. The opposition of appearances observable in this state, (of fatigue and activity, of insensibility and life, at the same time) cannot fail to shew us the opposite natures of the two constituent parts of our composition. If this opposition of appearances had been less, or

our constitution more perfect, perhaps we could not have observed these different natures with fo much ease and certainty. If all had been a blank of thought and consciousness in sleep, the foul would have seemed to be of the same nature with the body: if there had been no difference of thought and consciousness then and at other times, the body would have appeared to be of the fame nature with the foul; nor could the thinking principle have been so distinguishable. There are so many useful and instructive appearances belonging to this phænomenon, that I am fure a curious, fair Enquirer would not wish it removed out of nature. Whatever the Sceptick may fay, he feeks to deny, diminish, or pervert every circumstance relating to it. How uncomfortable would it be to lye down in a temporary state of non-existence! How delightful is it to think that there is a world of spirits; that we are surrounded with intelligent living Beings, rather than in a lonely, unconscious Universe, a wilderness of matter! It is a pledge given us of immortality isfelf, and that we shall not be extinguished all at once, nor cut off from existence,

It is true, we are fometimes infulted with painful illusions: but we are at other times gratified by more friendly powers. It is pleafant to think that infinite goodness rules over all; this is a rational fecurity. Were there no other thing, the discovery itself is worth all the pain we fuffer. This appearance is offered to us as a counterpart to dead matter. I cannot repeat it too oftten, Every thing is best as God hath ordered it. Nothing so ordered is void of instruction. Who that is rational would chuse to be without these intimations of an after-existence? But to return and shew other reasons, why the scenes offered may be wild and incoherent.

XLVII. The indisposition of the body may hinder the perfection and consistency of the schemes designed. For, since these Beings immediately affect the organ, and by it the soul; some indispositions of the organ must indispose it for their designs, and mar the inconsistency of their schemes. We see an indisposed organ often hinders real external objects from raising the same sensations in the soul. Some indispositions of the head so

affect the eyes, that the perspective of all objects is much marred; the images are distorted, or the objects are thrown off to a great distance, or they seem to dance and wheel round, though the outward impresfions are the fame as at other times. And hence, more probably the confusion of dreams after eating; than a not-dreaming, as Aristotle fays. When the natural method of perception may be thus vitiated; we may warrantably fay, the like must happen to the impressions made by any other cause. The rapid motion of the blood in a fever must of course disturb such representations; as the moving of water shatters the images it would otherwise represent entire (g). Sick mens dreams

(g) It is worth one's while to confider the following explication of this particular from Aristotle, which is no less applicable here, than to his hypothesis; and which therefore I shall transcribe at large. "Ωςε (says he) κα-θάπες ἐν ὑγςῷ, ἐὰν σφόδςα κινῆ τις, ὁτὲ μὲν ἐδὲν Φαίνελαι εἰδωλον ὁτὲ δὲ Φαίνελαι μὲν, διεςςαμμένον δὲ πάμπαν, ῶςε Φαίνεθαι ἀλλοῖον, ἢ οἶου ἐςιν ἡρεμήσανλος δὲ, καθαρὰ ἢ Φανεςά. "Ουλω ἢ ἐν τῷ καθεύδειν, τὰ Φανλάσμαλα, ἢ αὶ ὑπόλοιποι κινήσεις, αὶ συμβαίνουσακ ἀπὸ τῶν αἰσθημάτων, ὁτὲ μὲν ὑπὸ μείζονος ἔσης τῆς εἰσημένες κινήσεως, ἀφανίζονλαι πάμπαν ὁτὲ δὲ τελαραγμένας

dreams are proverbially wild. Horace compares a poem to them, where no part is of a piece with the rest (b). In the morning, when the indisposition that causes a consusion in the brain, is well near worn off, our dreams begin to be more clear and intelligible; as the same Author observes, and our experience consists (i). And these consists of pairons are disconsisted as the same author observes.

τὰ ἐνύπνια, οἶον τοῖς μελαγχολικοῖς, ἢ πυρέτθεσι, ἢ οἰνωμένοις, cap. 2. De in infomn. See here N° 33, above. As this is remarkable, I shall give a translation of it for the sake of those who may not understand the original, "As any liquor (says the Author) if it be jum- bled, sometimes represents no image at all, and some-

" times reprefents the image distorted, and different

from what it should be; but if the liquor be undi-

furbed, the image appears plain and conspicuous; so

in fleep, the parlaquala and impressions sometimes

disappear altogether, when the aforesaid motions are

ftrong; and sometimes the visions mis-shaped and

" monstrous, and the appearances but slender, and weak-

" ly impressed; as happens to melanchelick and feverish

" persons, or those who are drunk."

(b) —— Velut ægri somnia, vanæ
Fingentur species —— De Art. poëtic.
(i) ———— Quirinus

Post mediam noetem vifus; cum somnia vera.

Sat. 10. lib. 1. derations

derations not only answer the present difficulty, but explain another, in shewing that all the arguments for our dreams being mechanical, agree well enough with the present conclufion. What is mechanical will bear to be explained this way; but what is spontaneous, living, rational, will never endure to be explained mechanically. Again, they may at other times offer to the imagination such wild and frightful figures, as they know must naturally terrify the foul; which feems probable from the frightful appearances that are made to accompany the disease called the Incubus, fpoken of before. Besides, as there may be a contrariety among themselves in their inclinations and defigns, fo they may industrioufly mar each other's reprefentations, and impede the effects of each other's power: for there may be emulation and opposition among them, according to the difference of their natures, and extent of their power. Now, according to the observation in No 35. fince the fundamental truth is certain; it is enough to take off the present difficulty, that there is no open abfurdity in these suppositions: not to say that there is a great deal of probability in them all.

XLVIII. As

XLVIII. As to what is faid of the abfurdity of supposing such Beings busied in fuggesting imaginary scenes to brute animals; it is replied that, strictly speaking, this is but a supposition, and nothing that we can be certain of. If any one was to go about to prove it, he could not possibly do more than make it probable. The point is thus. We men have scenes of vision obtruded on the foul in fleep, where there is life, action, nay and reason too: the soul is unconcerned in the production of these: therefore we conclude that a living cause produces these visions, and offers them to the perceptivity, a capacity in which we are passive and necessary. Now some beasts give signs, by the motions of their bodies in fleep, that their perceptivity is not vacant then, and that's all (k): for furely they da

(k) Lucretius says, lib. 4. ver. 987.

Venanturque canes, in molli sæpe quiete,

Jastant crura tamen subito, vocesque repente

Mittunt, & crebras reducunt naribus auras,

Ut vestigia si teneant inventa ferarum.

This is so: but when he says, birds dream that the hawk pursues them, and that they say to the sacred groves, &c. it seems rather a poetical embellishment.

Vol. II. N

do not tell us fo. Whence we suppose, (with probability indeed) that they have objects also presented to them. And from this again we conclude, supposing these objects are fuch as could not be produced without a defigning cause, and that they are forced upon their perceptivity, as we know the case is with us; they must be produced by such a cause. Here the conclusion is not more certain, than the matter of fast that leads to it: and as certain it must be. This certainty is not fo great; as when we make the conclufion with respect to ourselves; for then we infer from our own consciousness and experience; but in this case from probability only, and from conjecture in part. And in this there is no apparent abfurdity. As to the reasons (supposing all that is defired) why these superior Beings should be busied in this low occupation; it is not necessary to the conclufion, to pretend to know, or affign them. Yet it could not be shewn to be an absurdity, or even any thing unphilosophical, if one

At variæ fugiunt volucres, pinnisque repente, Sollicitant divum nocturno tempore lucos Accipitres somno in leni si prælia, pugnasque Edere sint persectantes, visæque volantes.

Ibid.
Thould

fhould fay they may be confined by an overruling Power, to act under fuch limitations, or on fuch subjects; so that some of them may be tied down to illude the perceptivity even of brutes. And if so, it cannot be a small punishment, nor an ordinary degradation, to Beings of such high reach and saculties, to be forced to act in such a groveling sphere; to accommodate their representations to the capacity of a dog, or swine. More might be said; but perhaps it is better to omit these things (1).

XLIX. The

(1) If this difficulty be confidered in another light, we may perhaps think it not so absurd, as at first it would appear, to allow that separate spirits may be thus occupied; when we remember that the First Cause submits his infinite power, to perform the spontaneous motion of brute animals, as much as of men; as hath been shewn in Sect. II. Vol. I. and that he vouchsafes to guide the very lowest and most contemptible species of them, immediately by his own unerring reason. For where sense ceases to guide the lower creatures, instinct, that is, his immediate direction, leads them to all the ends of Life and Being. However contemptibly we may treat them in our philosophy, they are a part of his creation, and immediate care. We may farther observe with respect to the dreaming of brutes, that Aristotle allows the appearance, but makes it a reason why our dreams are not fent by God. His words are; "Ολως δ' ἐπεὶ τὰ τῶν ἀλXLIX. The last objection I shall mention, is an infinuation, that our dreams are no more than the thoughts and business of the day recurring: or which it may be supposed the soul itself some way or other resumes, without the interposition of such a cause as is here affigned. Mr. Locke says, "The dreams

λων ζώων ένειρότλει τινα, θεόσεμωλα μεν έκ αν είν τα ένύπνια, έδε γέγονε τέτε χάριν · δαιμόνια μένδοι · ή γας Φύσις δαιμόνια, άλλ' έ θάα. Where it is, I think, very remarkable, that the nature of this furprizing appearance made it otherwise probable, that our dreams were suggested by some intelligent efficient, had not this particular hindered him from concluding fo; but as they are accounted for here it hath no weight. The distinction Φύσις γας δαιμένια άλλ, ε θεία is an affected way of speaking; our dreams are truly δαιμένια, in the proper fense of the word. Nature is Beia in right philosophy; but a fatal or necessary constitution of nature (if that be not contradictory) is not fo much as daupivia. He hath elsewhere another reason why our dreams are not sent by God; because they are only άγενῶς ἄνθεωποι, and οί Tuyones, that have true and fignificant dreams (fee his Book Περίτης καθ' υπνον μανδικής.) But undoubtedly, if a poor man hath a true, fignificant dream, it must have a sufficient cause, as much as if his pupil Alexander had dreamed it.

" of fleeping men are, as I take it, all made up of the waking man's ideas, though for the most part oddly put together (m)." Lucretius says only fere and plerumque (n). It is true when Dionysius dreams that one of his captains killed him, and therefore puts him to death as a conspirator; this might be of a piece with his day-thoughts, he being a suspicious, bloody tyrant (o). But notwith-

(m) Book 2. cap. 1. fect. 17.

(n) Et quoi quisque fere studio devinctus adhæret,—
In somnis eadem plerumque videmur obire:
Causidici causas agere, & componere leges:
Induperatores pugnare, ac prælia obire:
Nautæ contractum cum ventis cernere bellum:
Nos agere hoc autem, &c.

Lib. 4. from ver. 959 to 982.

It feems he himself wrote over again his Book De rerum natura in his sleep. Farther on, he says, sometimes after the publick shows, the spectators dream over again all the theatrical performances, dances, musick, &c.

(ο) Plutarch fays of him—Καὶ Μαςσύαν δέ τινα τῶν προηγμένων ὑπ' αὐτε ἢ τελαγμένων ἐφ' ἡγεμονίας ἀνεῖλεν, δόξανλα καλὰ τὰς ὕπνες σφάτλεν αὐτόν · ὡς ἀπ' ἐννοίας μεθημερινῆς ἢ διαλογισμε, τῆς ὄψεως ταύτης εἰς τὸν ῦπνον αὐτῷ παραγενομένης. He thought, he himself could not have had such a dream, unless Marsya, had really plotted against him to take away his life.

N 3 standing

standing this, it argues much inattention to be able to suppose, that the force put upon the foul in fuch a fcene, was the work of the foul itself: or that the spontaneity, life and defign in fuch a vision, was not the work of a living, defigning cause. Or though we could fome way or other imagine, that Caligula fancied, he was to be assumed to a share of the government of the Universe; and therefore dreamed before his death, that \u00e4upiter kicked him down from his throne (p); the same exception is to be made to it. But was it ever before in Astyages's waking thoughts, or of a piece with them, ix TWV αιδοίων της θυγάζεὸς Φῦναι άμπελον, that out of his Daughter there grew a Vine, which over-shaded all Asia? Or again, that she discharged fuch a quantity of urine, as made a general inundation in it? Or when Lucullus, dreamed that one Autolycus defired to fpeak with him, a name he had never heard of before, and whose history he learned only next morning from the inhabitants of the place; can it be faid that any of his waking thoughts had suggested this to him? We are

⁽p) (Vid. Sueton, in Calig.)

placed in circumstances every night, and see things, which for the newness and strangeness of them, we are furprized how they could enter our fancy. This observation of Mr. Locke's is so far from being exact, that if he had made just the contrary observation, it would have been equally true: which is remarkable enough in a man of his accuracy and judgment. Now, our natural curiofity should rather have prompted us, I think, to fearch out the cause of these new and strange visions: allowing that the foul might some way or other, unknowing to itself, turn over all objects in sleep, formerly familiar to it; nay and terrify itself with some of them. Or if our curiofity had not led us to examine the foreign fort of dreams, but rather to enquire into the nature of the other kind, yet how could the foul, upon Mr. Locke's own principles, form to itself in sleep a scene of our waking actions and thoughts, and the man be still ignorant of it, without being two distinct persons? And since they are the thoughts and actions of us rational Beings, could they be introduced to the foul again, but by some rational and intelligent cause? If a Lawyer, to take one of Lucretius's instances, N 4

stances, answers the objections of the oppofite party in his sleep, and if he made these objections against himself, should he not be as conscious that he made them, as that he made the answers to them? If objections are made, the efficiency of a rational intelligent cause is interested, from the nature of the instance: and if the person himself answers the objections, the soul reasons sometimes in sleep, or kath ideas under the condust of the understanding.

L. That these separate Agents should sometimes represent to us familiar and known objects, and immediately after something new and strange, hath nothing inconsistent in it; it is really rather an argument for, than an objection against the conclusion here made. If all our dreams were of one fort, more might be alledged than can be, as things now are. One may farther say, if these Beings suit the visions they offer to us, to our profession, age, complexion, business; they suit them also to our passions, evil habits, vices. Men have been sometimes in danger of killing a real friend, instead of an imaginary enemy. Lucretius tells us maculating dreams accom-

pany youth (q). The covetous, revengeful, lascivious, have thus opportunities thrown in their way, of indulging their vicious inclinations, without restraint from men, or human laws. And it is in this respect we are most exposed to the power and cunning of these Beings. We ought then to keep our bodies regular, and our minds pure, that we may not afford them a handle. Democritus advises to pray, that only good and propitious visions may be formed to us in our sleep out of those fortuitous films and simulacra, which constantly rise from the surfaces of material things, and float up and down in the air (r). But it is not wonderful what a

man

(q) Tum quibus ætatis freta primitus insimuantur,
Semen ubi ipsa dies membris matura creavit;
Conveniunt simulacra foris, e corpore quoque
Nuntia præclari voltus, &c.

Lib. 4. ver. 1024.

(r) Δημέκριος μὲν γὰς ἔυχεσθαί Φησι δῶν ὅπως εὐλόγχων εἰδώλων τυγχάνωμεν, ἢ τὰ σύμφυλα ἢ τὰ
χεηςὰ μᾶλλον ἡμῖν, ἐκ τῆ περιέχονδος, ἢ τὰ Φαῦλα ἢ
τὰ σκαιὰ συμφέρηλαι, [certainly to be in continual dread
from chance, which neither prayers nor tears can bend,
is the worst kind of Deisidemony; as Plutarch observes
in the following part of the sentence] λόγον οὐτ ἀληθή,

man can pray to, who believes there is no other thing besides matter; neither God nor Spirit? It is natural for such a creature as man to pray, when he is in want, fear, distress; nay, I think it is impossible not to pray at such times; but it is shocking to pray to chance, or to address fatal necessity. Is it not better philosophy to pray to that Being who keeps these spirits in subjection, that their malicious designs upon us may be frustrated?

LI. We may next take notice of the folutions of this appearance, given by those who taught the materiality of the foul: and after what hath been said just now, perhaps no consideration can better shew us the necessity of assigning a living intelligent cause for it, than to review the wild and unsupported things these men have said to explain it, without the help of such a cause. This is the chief design and subject of Lucretius's 4th Book De rerum natura; in the first part of which he endeavours, in his own way, to

καὶ ωρὸς ἀωτράνλους ἐκφέρονλα δεισιδαιμονίας εἰς φιλοσοφίαν καλαβάλλων. In Æmil.

fhew the manner by which external objects act upon the fenses, and produce perception in the mind; resolving to shew how this is applicable also to the perception excited in us in our dreams. He supposes that from the surfaces of all material things there are continually slying off thin membranes, pellicles, or similar surfaces (s). These he calls simulacra, membrana, cortex, essigna. Colours themselves he makes to be thin colour-

(s) Nunc agere incipiam tibi quod vehementer ad has res
Attinet, esse ea quæ rerum simulacra vocamus:
Quæ quasi membranæ summo de corpore rerum
Direptæ volitant ultro citroque per auras:
Atque eadem nobis vigilantibus obvia menteis
Terrificant; atque in somnis, cum sæpe siguras.
Contuimur miras, simulacraque luce carentum.

Ver. 34.

And again,

Dico igitur rerum effigias, tenuesque figuras
Mittier ab rebus, summo de corpore earum;
Quæ quasi membrana, vel cortex nominitanda 'st;
Quòd speciem, ac formam similem gerit ejus imago.
Quojuscunque cluet de corpore susa vagari.

Ver. 46.

One might ask here by the by, Whence came these simulacra luce carentum, after the bodies were burnt or buried? The surface of the urn only or tomb, should have appeared!

ed pellicles, incessantly issuing from the coloured body, and tincturing whatever they fall upon with their own die (t). Such tenues, consimilésque formarum essigne cannot be observed singly, he says; but by their constant flux a number of them may, especially from a speculum (u); but that upon wood, stone, &c. the spectres are shivered and broken (v). Hitherto this is not much amiss; at least there is fancy and poetical imagination in it; only he seems to be under some difficulty when he would prove that there are thin surfaces thrown off by bodies, because grass-

(t) Verum de summis ipsum quoque sæpe colorem, &c. Ver. 72.

(u) Sunt igitur tenues formarum consimilesque
Effigiæ, singillatim quas cernere nemo
Cum possit: tamen assiduo crebroque repulsu
Rejectæ, reddunt speculorum ex æquore visum;
Nec ratione alia servari posse videntur
Tantopere, ut similes reddantur quoique siguræ.

Ver. 103.

(v) —— Sed in aspera saxa,

Aut in materiem ut ligni pervenit, ibi jam

Scinditur, ut nullum simulacrum reddere possit.

At cum, splendida quæ constant, opposta fuerunt,

Densaque; ut in primis speculum'st, nihil accidit
korum,

Ver. 148.

hoppers.

boppers and serpents cast their exuviæ at certain times of the year; and because smoke, vapour, flame, rise from bodies (x). Befides, he is not aware that, if these pellicles fly off in the dark, (for it is then we fee them in dreams) colours and objects must be feen as much, and as well in the dark, as in the light; and if they fly off inceffantly, they must be equally visible to us while awake as while we fleep. But then this is not enough, that these similar surfaces are incessantly emitted from all bodies; but farther many fimulacra rerum are spontaneously generated, which do not rife from any body; these are still floating up and down in the air; still changing; and by odd combinations and encounters, make up the shapes of

(x) Principio, quoniam mittunt in rebus apertis
Corpora res multæ; partim diffusa solutè;
Robora seu fumum mittunt; ignesque vaporem;
Et partim contexta magis, condensaque; ut olim
Cum veteres ponunt tunicas æstate cicadæ;
Et vituli cum membranas de corpore summo
Nascentes mittunt; & item cum lubrica serpens
Exuit in spinis vestem:

Hæc quoniam funt; tenuis quoque debet image
Ab rebus mitti, summo de corpore eorum.

Ver. 52. Giants,

Giants, monsters, and wild beasts; no otherwise than we see strange sigures and shapes in the clouds (y). Farther on he explains this particular, that these simulacra sometimes spontaneously exist, and sometimes arising in parts, from the bodies of real living creatures, they happen to encounter in the air, and produce monstrous compounds between them; as the surfaces arising from the bodies of a man and a horse, by sticking together make up the simulacrum of a centaur(z). And thus he got a fund of these

(y) Sed ne forte putes ea demum sola vagare

Quæcunque ab ribus rerum simulacra recedunt:

Sunt etiam quæ sponte suâ gignuntur, & ipsa

Constituuntur in hoc cœlo, qui dicitur aër;

Quæ multis formata modis sublimè feruntur;

Nec speciem mutare suam liquentia cessant;

Et quojusque modi formarum vertere in ora.

Et nubcis facilè interdum concrescere in alto

Cernimus———— Ver. 130-

(2) Omne genus quoniam passim simulaera feruntur
Partim sponte sua quæ fiunt aëre in ipso;
Partim quæ variis ab rebus cunque recedunt:
Et quæ consistunt ex horum facta siguris.
Nam certe ex vivo Centauri non sit imago,
Nulla fuit quoniam talis natura animalis.
Verùm ubi equi atque hominis convenit imago
Hærescit sacile extemplo—
Ver. 740.
frightful

frightful appearances, fit for any purpose in which he pleases to employ them. Then he proceeds to account for vision, and the appearances of specula, ingeniously enough from these principles (a). But his subject goes not on fo fmoothly with him, when he comes to founds. He is aware that in dreams we hear founds, voice and speech, as well as see images, and moving figures; and fince voice and found have a corporeal nature to impel the fense, which truth he proves, because fome words hurt the throat while they are pronounced (b), he depends upon his Reader's kindness, to suppose that sounds may have their cortices and membranæ also; leaving him to fancy as well as he can (having thus fet his imagination at work) how the images and spectres of words and sentences may hover up and down in the air, till he fall asleep, and then discharge themselves upon him in dreams.

- (a) Nunc age cur ultra speculum videatur imago, &c. Ver. 270.
- (b) Scilicet expletis quoque janua raditur oris Rauca viis; & iter lædit, qua vox it in auras.

Ver. 535. LII. Thete

LII. These foundations being laid, he comes to the folution of dreaming, which is now an easy affair: for these spectres and simulacra of corporeal things, constantly emitted from them, and floating up and down in the air, come and affault the foul in fleep (c). And as for chimeras, and other monstrous representations, these he had prepared beforehand, (ver. 130. & seq.) All this is well enough, if he had but taken care to tell us, how these simulacra, such slender pellicles, get in whole and entire to the breast, or heart, which he makes the feat of the foul, as hath before been observed; for he allows they are shattered, when they fall upon any rugged, uneven furface: and in giving the difference between founds and images, he fays, though a found may get whole and entire through any chink, or cranny, yet an image or fimulacrum cannot; but must be ruined and broken, if it hath not room to enter all at

Ver. 726. once.

⁽c) Nunc age; quæ movent animum res, accipe & unde Quæ veniunt, veniant in mentem, percipe paucis. Principio hoc dico, rerum simulacra vagari Multa modis multis——

once (d). But leaving many inconsistencies untouched; let us take notice of the shifts Lucretius is put to, in accounting first, how these cortices of bodies should have motion and life; and then how they should act with design, reason, and intelligence. Here he cannot so much as alledge his efficient cause, chance; for all this must be done in an instant: there is not an eternity of time, wherein these pellicles may dance about, and

Onne genus motús, & cætús experiundo; Tandem deveniant in taleis disposituras.

Lib. 1. ver. 1025.

till at length they casually form the vision to be presented to the soul. As to the first; how these sluctuating films of bodies should have life and action, so as to represent a regular dance to the soul in sleep——

Brachiáque in numerum jactare, & cætera membra:

Nam fit, ut in somnis facere hoc videatur imago. Ver. 773.

(d) Nimirum quia vox per flexa foramina rerum Incolumis transire potest; simulacra renutant: Perscinduntur enim, nist recta foramina tranant.

Ver. 603.

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He fays this is not wonderful; for it is not the fame image that performs this: but that there are as many different images, as we fancy there are different postures of the fame image: that when one of these exuviæ of bodies hath appeared, and represented one posture, it is destroyed, and another different one comes, and represents the second posture, which we still fancy to be the first; and just so, a third case, or thin sheet of matter appears in a third posture, &c.

Endo statu; prior hæc gestum mutasse videtur. Ibid.

Grave men will perhaps be angry with me for transcribing these absurdaties: and it would not, I own, be excusable, if it were not to shew what kind of philosophy hath been embraced, rather than the existence of separate spirits should be acknowledged,

----Ne forte animas Acherunte reamur Effugere; aut umbras inter vivos volitare: Neve aliquid nostri post mortem posse relinqui, &c. Ver. 41.

For, as appears from what was lately faid, all this is the doctrine of Democritus (e). And certainly, no words could fo well demonstrate to us the folly of attempting to account for this various, wonderful, living appearance (so to speak) as remarking upon these absurd sictions. And to save the trouble of repeating it often, let me observe, that the Authors of all the other hypotheses would be as ridiculous, if they were as minute. They say some general thing or other; but dare not offer to apply their solutions to any one instance. As to the second difficulty, Why these empty sheets of matter should act

(e) Aristotle says, cap. 3. Περί τῆς καθ' ὅπνον μανθικῆς. Τοῖον δ' ἀν εἴη μᾶλλον, ἢ ὥσπερ λέγει Δημόκριτος, εἴδωλα ἢ ἀπερροὰς αἰτιώμθο. What Aristotle
substitutes instead of this, is his own solution; where, if
we consult the place, we shall see no less egregious trisling. "Because the air is not russed with wind in the
"night-time, the κινήσεις have more effect, and the
"dreams are fitter to be divined from!"

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with

with reason and intelligence, instead of pretending to solve it, he turns another way, to ask questions concerning it, such as, whether we may not suppose that they wait the nod of the will?

Anne voluntatem nostram simulacra tuentur? Et simul ac volumus nobis occurrit imago? Ver. 782.

Or, when they represent some theatrical performance, Whether we are not to think, that thess cortices are learned, and full of art?

Scilicet arte madent simulacra, & docta vagantur,

Nocturno facere ut possint in tempore ludos?

Let any one in this place reflect on the necessity that forced Lucretius to make these extraordinary suppositions. And then let me ask a Sceptick, who has ever so little ingenuity left, if it be not a strange attempt to account for life and reason mechanically. To mention only one thing more; he crowns all, in his accounting for spontaneous motion, and volition, by these surfaces. He says,

fays, the furface of walking (I know no better English word for it) beats upon the foul, excites the will of walking in it; and fo protrudes the whole corporeal bulk.

Nunc qui fiat, uti passus proferre queamus, Cum volumus,——

Et quæres tantum hoc oneris protrudere nostri Corporis insuêrit dicam: tu percipe dicta. Dico animo nostro primum simulacra meandi Accedere, atque animum pulsare, ut diximus ante.

Inde voluntas fit.

Ver. 875.

LIII. Others to avoid these absurdities, have sought the solution of this appearance, from the mechanism of the body only. Mr. Hobbes endeavours to account for it thus, chap. 2. of his Leviathan, concerning the imagination. "When a body is once in motion, it moveth (unless something else hinder it) eternally; and whatsoever hindereth it, cannot in an instant, but in time, and by degrees, quite extinguish it: and as we see in the water though the wind cease, the waves give not over rolling for a long time after; so also it happeneth in that motion, which is made

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" in the internal parts of a man, then when " he sees, dreams, &c. For after the object " is removed, or the eyes shut, we still re-" tain an image of the thing feen, though " more obscure than when we see it." - So again in chap. 45. he fays, "And the mo-"tion made by this pressure, continuing af-" ter the object which caused it is removed, " is what we call imagination, and memory, " and (in fleep, and fometimes in great di-" stempers of the organs, by sickness or vio-" lence) a dream." Thus he makes dreaming to be the pressure made in the organ, continuing or repeated in fleep. But this is fo shamefully poor and unfatisfying a cause of this appearance, that it accounts for nothing; and it is almost loss of time to stay to shew. the lameness of it. Every thing said, is as eafily denied as affirmed, and with a hundred times more probability. How comes this motion to be begun again, after it hath been stopped, by so many intervening, various, contrary motions? Though a moving body without external impediment, will always move on; this does not prove that it will move on through all the impediments it can meet with: or that it will take up a motion

once extinguished, and that after so long an interruption. There is no circumstance common to a body moving in vacuo, (of which this axiom is true) and the internal parts of a man's body. A pendulum moving freely, will not move half a night; why should the internal parts of a man's body, crowded, obftructed, move the whole night? nay, why should they move most freely in the morning? It had been altogether as fatisfactory to have faid, that a tennis ball, when a motion is impressed upon it by a racket, and then destroyed by the contrary force of another racket, will, when that contrary force is spent, begin and continue the first impressed motion: or that a harpficord, when a tune is first played upon it, and then a dozen of other tunes, will, when the motion of them all is stopped, begin the first tune of itself again. Befides, according to this account, either the last impressed motion shall be first renewed, after we fall afleep, and we should dream over the day-objects retrograde; or all the waking motions should be renewed in order, and we should do every thing twice over; or the strongest only should be renewed. But this is ridiculous, and contrary to fact. We fee things 0 4

things in fleep that have not been in our waking thoughts for many days, or years before, perhaps never. And what can be faid of these from this solution? Or perhaps we see fomething in a dream, that is familiar to us; and immediately after a thing, that we never thought on before: why are these joined together? or how can a motion be continued, that is begun only for the first time? This is so unperforming an hypothesis, that it anfwers for nothing. He brings in cold, as has been observed above, to breed dreams of fear; and heat, those of anger. Why doth he not apply this hypothesis of his, to account for Brutus's vision? Or if that was too hard, for Calpurnia's the night before Cæsar was killed? Or at least for some common instance? Every Hypothesis-Maker makes a trial of his hypothesis, to shew how well it does. Lastly, If we hear some kind of sounds long, they will continue in the ears it is true, for fome time after, while we are awake; but are broken off immediately in fleep, which is directly against Mr. Hobbes's observation.

LIV. It is to be remarked, that this Author hath given some dreams a higher original.

nal. In the fortieth chapter of this Book he writes thus. "The father of the faithful, " and first in the kingdom of God by cove-" nant, was Abraham. For with him was "the covenant first made; wherein he ob-"liged himself, and his seed after him, to " acknowledge and obey the commands " of God; not only fuch as he could take " notice of, (as moral laws) by the light of "nature; but also such as God should in a " special manner deliver to him by dreams and " vifions." ---- And, having in a few words infifted, that there was no need of a particular contract, to add force to the obligation of moral laws, he continues-" And " therefore the covenant which Abraham " made with God, was to take for the commandment of God, that which in the name of God, was commanded him in a dream or vision; and to deliver it to his family, and cause them to observe the fame." All that can be faid to this, I think, is, that he who wrote thus, should not have advanced fuch an hypothesis, for solving the appearance of dreaming in a mechanical way. Were these dreams the motions only of external objects impressed on the senses, and continued after

after the objects themselves were gone? A monitory dream or vision, as to the natural manner of its production, is so like another dream which is not monitory, that it is strange anyone should assign such opposite causes, for effects every way alike, except in relation to certain events which are to follow. Nor is it less surprizing, that, after what he has written in many places, he should still conclude with so much assurance, and so little argument, that the soul of man, all spirits, and God infinite in all persections, are but material things (as hath been observed above.) This is but a poor remedy for the jargon of the schools which he complains of.

LV. This last folution of dreaming is taken from Aristotle's; and so little different from it, that the same considerations shew them both to be quite foreign to the purpose. Aristotle says, that the objects of sense produce fensation in every one of the organs; and that this sensation, or perception $[\pi \acute{\alpha} \theta o s]$ remains in the organs, not only while the objects act, but after they are gone (f); illustrat-

(f) Τ) δέ εςι το ενύπνιον, η πως γίνε), εκ τω καρ το πνον συμθαινότων μαλις αν γνωςίσωμβο τα γαρ αίσθηθο

illustrating his account, with the examples of those, who by long looking on the sun, see nothing when they turn away their eyes, διὰ τῆν ἔτι ὑποῦσαν κίνησιν ἐν τοῖς ὄμμασιν, ὑπὸ τẽ φωθὸς, and of those, who by looking long on any colour, see all objects of that colour; and of those who think every thing moves, after having long looked on running water (g). It were to be wished, by this solution

αἰσθηλὰ καθ΄ ἔκαςον αἰσθηξήςτον, ήμιν ἐμποιέστιν αἰσθησιν ὰ τὸ γιτόμθρον ὑπ' αὐτῶν πάθος, ễ μόνου ἐνυπάρχει ἐν τεῖς αἰσθηξήστοις, ἐνεξίεσῶν τῶν αἰσθήσεων, ἀλλὰ ὰ ἀπελθέσων. κ. τ. λ. cap. 2.

(g) After which he observes that violent sounds render men thick of hearing; and that strong scents, acting long on the organ, blunt the quickness of that sense asterward; γίνοιλαι δὲ ἀπὸ τῶν μες άλων ψόφων δύσκωφοι. γίνοιλαι τὰ ἀπὸ τῶν ἐσχυρῶν ἐσμῶν δύσοδμοι: τὰ ἐπὶ τῶν ὁμοίων. But all this is only going about with little distant similitudes, and begging men not to be over difficult to be persuaded: a common shift when men would account for some great thing, from unsatisfying principles. Lucretius is remarkable for this art through his whole book; a small resemblance, which rather doth not contradict, than consirm, serves for a proof with him. Yet, I know not how, he came to venture to be so particular in this case; charmed, I suppose, with the poetical

tion of his, that he had tried to explain any common instance of dreaming, such as that of the man with the sword, pursuing, and threatening us; or that he had taken notice of that diversity of consciousness, that is in the rational part of the φωνλάσμα; or of that spontaneity, which is in the animate part of it (see N° 25.) so different from what the foul itself thinks and does, as he himself observes; or that he had explained how such force and violence is used upon the foul, by this remainder of external impressions, which should seem familiar to it. Surely we may fay that these motions, excited in the visory nerves, by the fun, or colours, or the running water, are now quite stopped, when we see all other objects again, as we saw them before; and therefore that it must be so à fortiori, with respect to other objects, which do not make fuch strong impressions. Befides, fuch a confusion as remains even during

cal imagination; and therefore he appears fo ridiculoufly abfurd: but, as has been faid, if other Authors had offered to apply their folutions minutely to particular cases, we should have seen abundance of as filly and ridiculous suppositions. Let any one make the trial upon his examples.

the

the time they last, could never be the cause of that distinct vision we have in sleep; nor therefore any remainder of motion the cause of distinct perception then. Nor could we deduce the infinite variety of dreams from this uniform mechanical cause. Nothing new could then ever be offered to the foul in fleep; all being the remains of familiar waking impresfions. Could ordinary common objects, occasion the appearance of objects we never faw before? With the leave of so great a man, would it be at all more abfurd to fay, that the shadow of Corifcus's body (b), which only moves as his body moves, may become a living intelligent agent; than to fay, that the impressions made by Coriscus's actions on the fenfory while awake, may perform other spontaneous, rational actions, of which Coriscus himself never gave a copy? Lucretius's fimulacra are more entertaining; nor really are they less satisfactory than this dry notion. when a school-boy asks his Master something, that happens to be too hard for them both; the Master pretends to give him a reason, and the boy is put off, thinking he is not yet ad-

⁽h) De infomniis, cap. 2.

vanced enough to understand such deep things: but the Master hath not that satisfaction in his own mind, which arises from knowing the case, and his having made another understand it. So, I think, it is with Democritus, Epicurus, Aristotle, and their several followers: whatever these men said to amuse others, they had not the pleasure to believe themselves.

LVI. Before we leave this subject of our dreams, there is one circumstance more to be observed in them, wonderful enough; which might be of use to us, if we could enter more into the nature of it. I shall only endeavour to express the appearance itself, and take notice of a truth, which feems naturally to follow from it: perhaps some other hand may not disdain to pursue it. It is this: In our fleep persons and objects are frequently presented to us, with the newness of which we are no way furprifed, because we seem to know them. They are reprefented as known and familiar objects, and we allow them to be fuch, being acquainted with them at first fight; though we know not how, nor where, fuch familiarity was contracted: for

on awaking, we wonder how we thought we knew them, or entered so easily into their defigns and business. We frequently think we come into a company, where we feem to know what we came for, and what is every one's part of the business in hand: or we are all on a fudden engaged in circumstances, and a course of action, which appears to us to be the consequence of former action, which we readily own we have been concerned in. A man imagines he is in danger or trouble, because he did such things formerly, of which he feems to know himfelf guilty: he is stung with grief and remorfe for crimes he allows he hath perpetrated years before; or he is praised for great and virtuous actions, of the merit of which he seems secretly conscious. In a word, there is this notable difference between what we fee while awake, and what we see in sleep; that if we see any thing new while awake, we know that it is new to us, and find that difficulty and uncafiness in us, which attends ignorance and unacquaintance: but oftentimes it happens, though we see a thing for the first time only in sleep, yet we do not think it new to us, but familiar, and not new. This, I believe, will be found to be every one's experience, and an ordinary qualification of our fleeping thoughts. Any one will be furprised when he observes that this knowledge, which the foul is prompted with in dreams, of the perfons and objects then offered to it, vanishes as foon as the senses are opened, and external objects begin to act through them; as if the recovering our former experience of the things in real life, darkened and chased away the other; or as if these two were inconsistent together.

LVII. I shall venture to give an instance or two of this kind of dreams, to help the better to explain what I mean; the exactness in the relation of which may be depended on: or, it is the same thing if we suppose them imaginary examples, made to be reasoned from; provided there be nothing improbable or prodigious in them: if it were possible for any instance in this subject to be such (i). A person dreams, for instance,

⁽i) Lucian says, Εἴ ἢ ౚూర్లు దీర్య ἐπαθε, μὴ ἀπις ήσηθε Θαυμαίοποιοὶ γὰρ ὄνεικοι. Cicero says, Nihil
est magnum somnianti, as above.

that he hath lived for a confiderable time in a state of marriage with a certain woman, who had been dead many years before; and though he knows not the beginning of this affair, or how it came about, yet he allows it to be so, remembers some circumstances of their past life together, and seems to know the fituation of their circumstances at present, as if he had been led into it from the experience of some years. Again, another hath this scene presented to him in his sleep. He fancies a person reads to bim certain sentences out of a book, and that neither the person reading, nor the subject read, are unknown to him, but that he is familiarly acquainted with both; infomuch that he knows beforehand, what the other is to read to him, and the defign of the writer: and hath his remarks ready to offer upon it, as if he had perused this vifionary Author long fince. And upon awaking, he remembers some of the words read to him, and fomething of what he had to observe concerning it: but the scene gradually disappears; and the more he seeks to recover his own sleeping arguments, and the other's reasons, by the help of his wak-Vol. II. 1119

ing memory, the more they are darkened by that very endeavour. One under this disappointment will be vexed that he did not dream on, or that any thing should disturb him, while he is endeavouring to catch the shy remains of his vision, or if possible, to replace himself in the same state of confciousness. Here is a whole scene (or small confistent system) of instantaneous knowledge, which might be concerning any one affignable subject, as well as another, (for the prompting us with a ready familiarity with any knowable fubject, without our own pains in acquiring it by the ordinary methods, is the only difficulty in the appearance) and which might have been continued, I think, to any length, by the fame Power that began it (k).

LVIII. This

⁽k) I beg leave here to endeavour to take off a particular objection against the preceding part of this Essay, but urged chiesly against the subject of these two last paragraphs. It is said, "The solution I have given, and sepecially what I mention in this place, makes dreams mere enchantment and Rosicrucian-work, which it is absurd to admit into philosophy and among natural aperaparances; and that upon this account, we see Men have always chosen to explain the phænomenon ano-

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LVIII. This is the appearance. And it feems inexplicable to our present philosophy.

The

"ther way." But with much submission, I desire those who make this objection, to review the appearance itself once again; and then let them fay, Whether I have mifrepresented it; whether it is not really what may be called enthantment and Rosicrucian-work in itself, and abstracting from any folution; and whether this enchantment be not a true and real phanomenon, actually exhibited in nature. Let it be confidered, that this fort of objection must of necessity be levelled, not against any solution, but the appearance itself, as it stands in nature: fince it is certain that if there be any thing which can be called enchantment or Rosicrucian-work, if that be not contradictory and absolutely impossible, this appearance is such in the literal meaning of the word. And if it be a common and constant appearance in nature, how can it be abfurd to admit it into philosophy, or allow it a place among natural phanomena? Hence my folution cannot make it enchantment, it being fuch in itself antecedent to any folution that can be given. If it be meant that although it be fuch as is here represented, we should nevertheless, endeavour to account for it in some other way, or else let it quite alone. I answer; As to the accounting for it any other way, I am not able; let any one try it who pleases. With what success it hath been accounted for in all the mechanical ways hitherto attempted, I leave the world to judge. And as to letting

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The objects of fense, to speak only of these, leave an impression upon the organ by acting: this

it quite alone, I did not certainly go out of my road to find it, but had it placed directly in my way, by those Authors who had treated of it before. It is objected as a repreach on the rational nature of the foul, infifted on by Materialists, and pompoully accounted for as an effeet of matter and mechanism. All this being inconfistent with the inertia of matter, and the account of mechanism which I have given, forced me to engage in this difficult, abstruse subject. And if what I have advanced concerning it be just, there can be no harm done; only men will be obliged to alter their opinions a little, and that to the right fide; but if it should be wrong, I am not quite so foolish as to imagine it can pass. Nor is it to be supposed that a subject of this kind will be let quite alone; whoever thinks he can make any advantage of it, will bring it into his fide of the controversy. It was this way probably that Democritus brought it first into the controversy, observing Homer's authority so prevalent on the other side; though Homer spoke of it as nature pointed out, without being of any party. But ever fince, these Men have always brought it into their fide of the controversy:

But after all, do not those who are least willing to admit of enchantment and Rosicrucian-work among the appearances of nature, find themselves so enchanted, deluded, imposed upon every night? Have they not experience of the force and efficacy of this art! If they have not experi-

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this the foul applies to, and confults, when it would confider the objects themselves, now absent.

ence of it, they are proof, it seems, against the cause of this phænomenon, whatever it be, whether matter and motion, or immaterial Agents; and if they are not proof against that cause, to what purpose is it to dispute about the name, while they own the thing itself? Besides, has not every Author who treats on this subject, assigned more wonderful instances than I have ventured to give? And is not this, first to own the power of the cause exerted in the effect, and then to diforun it again, by giving it a false name? It must be proposterous to endeavour to fink the cause, and exalt the effect at the same time. Is it not inconsistent in Cicero, when he would treat of every thing that is noble and fublime; when he would explain the constitution of the Universe, the order and motion of the heavenly bodies; when he would speak of the nature of the foul, and of the infinite Fountain of all Being; in a word, when he would express the noblest sentiments that can enter into the mind of man; to deliver all under the form of a dream, and yet elsewhere to fay-Omnium sommiorum eadem est ratio, 50? Either fome dreams have a higher original, or he degrades his fubject, by dreffing it up as a dream. On his supposition, it must have been as probable, and even decent, to have faid, all this was the rovings of a manin a fever, as the Dream of a Scipio. This is confessing one way, and denying another.

As to what I observe concerning dreams in these two last paragraphs; That in them we are often prompted

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with

absent. When they act again, if the first impression be not quite worn out, they retouch and

with an instantaneous knowledge of things we never thought of while awake, and a ready familiarity with objects altogether new; I must refer to men's own experience for the truth of it. I cannot indeed bring an authority from any Writer on this subject whom I have feen, to vouch the justness of this observation; but if it may be determined by experience, authority will not appear absolutely necessary. We seem to know a person in a Dream, and the character he bears, at first fight; or the circumstances he is in, and his inclinations to us; though on awaking, we can find nothing in our former knowledge that can agree to him. We rarely admire any thing then for its novelty, and feem never to be uneafy for want of information, let the circumstances be ever so new; though we should certainly be uneasy in a waking flate, till we had informed ourselves about every thing we faw. In fhort, we enter fo readily and eafily into every thing heard and feen while we fleep, that nothing furprifes us, merely because it is strange and new. And this itself feems surprising and wonderful, if we compare it with the way how the mind is differently affected, while we are awake. It is true, they who ridicule or despise this whole appearance, and every circumstance observable in it, as below a philosophical consideration, may perhaps be diffatisfied; but that is not to be prevented. It is notwithstanding a real phænomenon, and this is a real circumstance of it; and fince some of the most

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and strengthen it; and the foul becomes percipient, not of a new impression, but of an impression.

most celebrated Authors, as Aristotle, Lucretius, Sc. have treated it in a philosophical way, the ridicule or contempt should fall upon them first; unless it be meritorious to exalt the powers of matter and mechanism, as they have done, and ridiculous to diffent from them.

But let me feriously ask, If all that I contend for were true, would men be in a worse condition, than if matter, and unguided motion performed all that is done in the Universe? This is a plain question, and the answer to it will decide a great deal in a few words. If the motion of matter be guided, all that I contend for (or elfe more than I contend for in the present case) is allowed. There is then no shifting, nor declining of consequences. If the motion of matter be not guided; we are at the mercy of the most inexorable of all things, brute-matter toffed about by chance. And is it not strange for men to pretend to foresee such dreadful consequences in the one case, and to be in fuch fecurity in the other? Direction and superintendence terrifies them, and the absence of these makes them easy! But to proceed; I have shewn that the motion of matter is guided in every the most contemptible appearance in the universe; after which, let us fuppose that the present appearance is merely mechanical, as mechanical as any man would have it to be: And this only engages a Higher Power in it, according to the argument in N' 29. fince the First Cause is the sale Mover in all mechanical motions. And thus, out of an unwillimpression renewed: for the last impression is perceived congruous to, or coincident with the

ingness to allow a just and adequate cause of this phænomenon, we necessarily interest the very First and Highest Being in the production of it; and, as I said above, N° 45. Note (e), load the Deity with all that is inean and unworthy, lest we should degrade inserior Agents. It happens here, as before, with respect to the inertia of matter; (see the Note (p) N° 22. Sect. i.) As long as matter was supposed a resisting substance, an immaterial Mover was necessary; and when we supposed it quite unresisting, the difficulty we would have avoided became greater. So in this point, if dreams are allowed to be immechanical, all that is contended for follows; and if they are denied to be immechanical, more than is contended for becomes unavoidable. A greater evidence than this cannot well be desired.

To conclude therefore; as this appearance is really what may be called enchantment and Rosicrucian-work, as it stands in nature; for not only Homer, Herodotus, Plutarch, &c. but even Lucretius, Democritus, Aristotle, and others of that side, have represented it as such. They never pretend to disguise, or dissemble the enchantment which we are often under, and feel with uneasiness and pain. Common experience would have given them the lie. Macrobius has gone so far, as to name five different kinds of this enchantment, "vengos, "εραμα, χρημαλισμός, ενύπνιον, and φανθάσμα, [omniam qua videre sili dormientes videntur, quinque principales

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the first, if I may so speak. Hence the soul perceives that object with memory: for memory (as we are passive in it) is only a thing's being brought into the perception, with a secondary and concomitant perception, which distinguishes it from a new perception, and makes it appear only a perception renewed: or that it was there once at least before. Accordingly, the oftener a thing hath been in the perception, still accompanied with this fecondary perception, the stronger the memory of it is; for the first impression is still made more lively and lasting: and on the other hand, when the first impression is almost worn out, this secondary perception is dark, and memory weak; and when an object hath been long out of the perceptivity, fo that the impression is quite cancelled, it is as new to us, as if it had never been there

les sunt diversitates & nomina, &c. In som. Scip.] Hence if there be any imputation or reproach in the present objection, no man who ever wrote on this subject is free from it. The only difference between these Writers is, That some of them have ascribed this enchantment to dead matter, and others thought some other Agent was necessary. And indeed if ever a dream was what might be called deama, or xenualismos, it would be strange to make dead matter the Agent.

before;

before; because it is entirely a new impresfion, not an impression renewed. Hence it is that many cafualties which affect the fenfory, weaken the impressions made on it, and consequently affect the memory equally. (See No 12. of Sect. V. Vol. I. concerning the foft and yielding substance of the sensory.) Drunkenness, old age, a stroke or wound on the head, and many difeases do this: and, as has been observed above, this is the constant and first effect of sleep. Memory, as we are active in it, is the power itself belonging to the foul, whereby it applies the perceptive capacity to read, as it were, these former impressions; or it is in general that power of the foul, whereby it directs the perceptivity to the confideration of any, former object. And this power no way depends on the matter of the body. It hath been shewn to be a contradiction to fay, The foul cannot exert its active power without the help or instrumentality of dead matter. The foul must act upon matter first, to make it instrumental: and matter could not be the instrument of this previous action. See Sect. IV. No 9. Vol. I. Note (k). Thus much of these two kinds of memory here: and we should not forget

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forget the difference between them, because, in a state of separation, the last fort will be without impediment.

LIX. Now from this account of memory it should follow, that every new impression made on the sensory, ought to appear new to the soul: and yet we see it is otherwise with respect to the impressions made by these invisible agents. It is one thing to see in sleep persons, quorum tellus amplectitur offa (as Lucretius expresses it) alive and before as, with whom we are once acquainted;

Quod ne miremur sopor atque oblivia curant:

and quite another to see persons, who on their being presented for the very first time, are familiar to us, and seem to have had former concerns with us; to jump all at once into a train of former action, which we were never concerned in; and to become instantly possessed of a tract of experience, which we never acquired! This is the most wonderful appearance, I think, in nature. Nothing but the actions of the Deity (which we admire, but do not pretend to account for) can exceed it. But whatever this may proceed

proceed from, whether from a different way of acting on the fenfory; or fome particular power and efficacy, which so affects the soul as to prompt it with an instantaneous knowledge of all objects thus offered to it; or whatever else may be the cause of it: we undeniably gather this material point from it, That the foul is capable of a more perfect and ready knowledge of things, than that which it attains to know, by the methods of sense and reflection; where the labour in the acquisition, and the trouble in retaining, is superseded: and that, as there is such a capacity on the part of the foul, fo spirits, not the most perfect and powerful that we can conceive, may prompt it after this manner. This phænomenon is an instance and experiment of the thing itself. Investigation, (whether it be concerning the nature of material objects, or in abstract reasoning) and reminiscence, are the two most difficult things to the foul in its present state: it requires time before we can make a sufficient stock of observations, and then we must proceed laboriously in comparing, and drawing conclufions from them; but this undeniable circumstance of our sleeping visions shews us, that all

all this trouble may be shortened, or rather become quite unnecessary. It is true, we know that in a flate of separation the soul must be freed from all restraint and impediment, because union to matter limits and confines it; but still we must conceive it using its own power and industry: whereas this qualification of our knowledge in: fleep discocovers to us a furprifingly new way, which we could have had no notion of without a trial. Without fuch a trial and experience in sleep, all the perfection of our waking state could not have fatisfied us that fuch a method of affecting the foul was possible. The knowledge we are prompted with is not bare information, as when one tells us something we knew not before; that would still have appeared new: but this, upon first being fuggested, is our former knowledge, if I may so express it, a familiar reminiscence. It is in this respect that our present method of remembring is lost and swallowed up in a superior species of memory. Let men consider what conclusions this phænomenon will justify, either as to the affistance the foul may receive in an after-state, or the enlargement of its own faculties: I fliall mention only

only one particular, viz. That the several parts of our past consciousness (which we are perpetually losing) may be recovered instantly, united together, and become one, by a firmer union, than the having recourse to perishable impressions on a corporeal organ, or our present method of reminiscence in general; however differently that they may be effected from the formal manner supposed in the last paragraph. And this must at least appear possible, when a thing more difficult and incredible, cannot be denied to be real: for it is not by far fo wonderful that we should be prompted with the knowledge of what bath been, and been known too by ourselves; as that the knowledge of things that never were, should appear as belonging to our former conscioutness (1.)

LX. It

⁽¹⁾ Men pretend to doubt whether the foul can have any memory, when it hath no impressions on a material sensory to have recourse to; but the present phænomenon shews, that memory, by no means, depends on material impressions, absolutely speaking. And if this appearance hath raised a doubt concerning the identity of our consciousness, it should, in fairness of reasoning, have satisfied that doubt again; considering that a God of truth presides over

LX. It will perhaps be objected, that this knowledge here argued from is falle and unreal, an illusion and cheat on the mind; and therefore that no inference ought to be drawn from it. To which it is answered first, that this, though in some cases an illusion, is yet a true matter of fact, and a real phanomenon in nature; which therefore, by the rules of philosophy, may and ought to be argued from. Aristotle, Lucretius, and the other Authors mentioned above, have advanced hypotheses to account for the whole appearance in a philosophical way, (though they reckoned all but illusion) which therefore they defigned should account for all the circumstances of it. And here, by the way, let any one weigh, and add to the former arguments. the impossibility of accounting for this cir-

over all. A certain great Author Tays, "He takes his "Being upon trust." So he might indeed, provided it was not from chance; that is no sure foundation to trust to. Matter is now altogether out of the question, I prefume; and we are speaking of the power of immaterial Beings: and it would be quite absurd to think there is no higher power in nature, than such as can deceive and impose upon us; that Truth hath not a supreme Patron in the Universe.

cumstance mechanically. When a thing is reckoned an illusion, it is the province of philosophy to find out how the illusion could be effected: in Opticks, when the place of the object is changed, and the dimensions of it enlarged; this is apparent only not real, and may be reckoned an illusion: yet it is real and useful knowledge to understand the way how this is produced. And fecondly, fince the manner of communicating athing, is independent on the thing communicated; this can be no objection against the manner of communicating this knowledge, let it be as false and delusive as it will. If I am so affected in fleep, as to know a man and his defigns, though he hath no existence but in vision; might not I be fo affected as to know this man and his defigns, if he had a real existence? There is all the parity here that needs be defired, to make an inference. Befides, other real and true knowledge, against which no exception could be made, might be communicated to us the same way. The subject imagined to be read out of the book, in the instance above, may be of the same kind with any of those arguments that are enquired after by men at other times. If we Should

should suppose a man to dream that another made out a speculative truth to him, (which, this instance, and perhaps the experience of fome shews not to be absolutely impossible to be done) this knowledge would be real. That real matters of fact have been discovered in dreams, I think even a philosopher may allow to be morally certain. I have never heard of any so incredulous as to refuse it. Aristotle frequently mentions apoopalized, such as foresee in sleep what is to come; and εὐθυόνεροι, fuch as have true dreams: notwithstanding the poor folution he offers of such an extraordinary appearance. Lucretius affirms, rather than allows, that many reveal their own fecret villanies in fleep (m). This

(m) Multi de magnis per somnum rebu' loquuntur; Indicioque sui facti persape fuere. Lib. 4. ver. 1012: And again more expresly,

Nec facile 'st placidam ac pacatam degere vitam, Qui violat factis communia fædera pacis. Et si fallit enim Divum genus, humanumque, Perpetuo tamen id fore clam diffidere debet, Quippe ubi se multi per somnia sæpe loquentes Aut morbo delirantes, procraxe feruntur, Et celata diu in medium peccata dedisse.

Lib. 5. ver. 1153.

This is too little to keep the world in awe; and yet it is too much, for chance, or mechanism to perform.

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is truth of one kind at least discovered, every way inconfistent with his principle. What Mr. Hobbes thought on this head, I have given a pregnant instance of above. The contradictory notions these men had of this appearance did not hinder them from confeffing, and allowing, the circumstances of it. History is full of this, which our own experience shews, is no way impossible. Sylla. wrote two and twenty books of commentaries of his own actions; these he inscribed to Lucullus, whom he left tutor to his only fon, passing by Pompey, and all the other Men of power in the commonwealth: and in these commentaries he advises Lucullus to look upon nothing so firm and certain [870] αξιόπισου ε) βέβαιου] as what he was forewarned of in dreams (n). Now if we confider all the circumstances, this will appear very remarkable. Sylla's character, whatever it might be in other respects, was far from lightness and vanity. And Lucullus calls this advice to mind, on a very fignal instance of a dream, which I have already mentioned, whereby the city of Sinope, and all its inha-

⁽n) See Lucullus's life in Plutarch; as also Sylla's; for it is written in both.

bitants were faved from ruin. Cyrus in his dying speech to his sons, says the soul in sleep becomes more divine, and fees as it were into futurity (o). Peticius, a Roman pilot, the night after the defeat of Pharsalia, dreamt he saw Pompey, not as he had often feen him in Rome; but sad and dejected, coming forward and speaking to him. In the morning, as he was telling this melancholy fight to those who were aboard with him, they came and told him that a small vessel drew nigh, and that those who were in it waved their garments, defiring to be received. When it was come close, and Peticius had come up, he faw the same fight he had seen in his sleep. Pompey the Great in a sad reverse of fortune, [-- ἐπις ὰς οὖν Πεβίκι©, εὐθὺς ἔΓνω τὸν Πομπήϊου, οξου όναρ εἶδε καὶ Φληξάμευ την κεφαλήν, &c.] Now, though I do not argue from particular matters of fact in such relations; but only alledge them as things no way improbable or abfurd, being agreeable to the common fense of mankind in such cases: yethere, though I would, I know not

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⁽a) Let it be remembered that *Xenophon* writes this, the finest Writer, and one of the greatest men of antiquity.

what to deny; Plutarch's veracity, or Peticius's fincerity in contriving off-hand a story, which was immediately followed with the event. I might instance Pelopidas's dream before the famous battle of LeuEtra, or Timoleon's before his expedition into Sicily; with a thousand others. The first of these was such as could not have been contrived after the event, nor concealed before: the chief Men in the army were called together to confult about it; there was a warm contest between the Generals and the Priests, whether it should be obeyed literally; and when they came to a refolution, the affair was communicated to the whole army. And a publick act of the whole city of Corinth followed upon the last. If such things are allowed, more will follow than I contend for here; viz. That things to come, have been actually foretold in dreams: let others determine concerning the power of fuch a Being as can foreknow future events.

LXI. Moreover, as to the present subject, let us reslect that representations of persons and actions in sleep, are pictures made by impressions on the sensor; and the ideas of real persons and actions, which we have while awake,

awake, are only fuch pictures with respect to the foul itself; there is nothing more real in the one fort of representation than the other: therefore the foul is made to do as much, when it enters into the designs and plots of the one, from such representations, as if it entered into the defigns of the other, from the same, or an equal representation. And it is made to do a great deal more, when it becomes conscious of former transactions (which never were) between the first sort, and it; than if it became conscious of transactions, which have been between the last fort and it, though now long forgot. Let us make a supposition that a man walking in a solitary place, in a country where he had never been before, faw before him, by the power of enchantment, a great house, and that his curiofity led him thither, where he finds a numerous family of fervants, and other people, variously occupied about their domestick affairs, or diversions: this man might easily be excused, if he took this crowd of people for real men and women, busied in real action, not being on his guard against illusion, nor perhaps having power to be fo: but then he might also be excused, if he took them all

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for strangers to him, and behaved himself as in a place, and among company unknown; fince this is the natural way to behave on fuch occasions. But if farther, he should be so affeEted by the force of this enchantment, as to know them all familiarly at first fight, to understand their business, and designs, and characters, as if he had had a long acquaintance and familiarity with them; if he should all in an instant begin to act his part, as if he were one of them, and do what it was expected he should do; if he should converse with them, as in consequence of a long familiarity; if he should have a contest with one, upon the account of an old grudge, and lye under obligations to others for former favours, &c. the wonder might justly feem doubled. Such an extravagant relation as this could not meet with belief among the most ignorant and credulous: and yet it is no more than what happens literally to some of us every night in our dreams. Surely it is because there is a God of truth, who fets boundaries to the power of these Beings, that we are not deluded into the extremest Scepticism by them; that our waking senses are not so bewildered with inconfistencies of facts and persons.

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fons, as to confound human reason; and that we are not led by them every minute to purfue that which would be our ruin! This is that which, as hath been observed before, (Nº 6.) no mechanism, no solution or hypothesis can account for; it is touching the foul in another manner than by the bare exhibiting of vision to it: one who considers it right, will be furprised that matter, mechanism, traces, should be offered as the cause. Now in this case, it is the same thing with respect to the man's being prompted with a knowledge of these imaginary persons, as if they were real. And by whatever way it is that he is endued with this extemporary experience of a whole past life, or by whatever way it is that we are endued, in like instances, with the knowledge of a train of past unreal actions; the same power, the same way applied, not to speak of a greater, could make usenter in a twinkling, into all the real knowledge and conscioufness, which the perfections of God, and the confistency of the moral world demands. To grant the one, and doubt of the other, is to allow that there may be an evil principle in the nature of things; superior to the good One, a principle who hath power to per-Q 4 vert

vert truth, and represent things as they are not: while the other cannot preserve it, nor represent things as they are.

LXII. To end this tedious essay: we may observe two things which chiefly tend to make us sceptical with regard to the existence of separate spirits, and their power. First, when by the help of a little philosophy we come to have immoderate notions of the natural powers of matter, as they are called: we then do not think the agency of any spirit necessary, and that matter hath all the powers and vertues that a Philosopher ought to admit of. Yet a close survey of matter, its origin and conditions, best of all things shews this to be quite otherwise. The other is a preposterous, if not pretended care, not to weaken the minds of children and young people (p). There will be idle stories of ghosts

(p) It is long fince this was a Sceptical pretence. In the *Philopfeudes* of *Lucian*, mentioned before, *Tychiades the Sceptic* affectedly cautions the vain old men, that they should not talk so idly, if it were but for the sake of the two young lads who were present, because this might fill their heads with Goblins and Spectres, that would haunt them as long as they lived. Thus far he was right; we should not talk idly before young or old: we need talk nothing

and apparitions, as long as the world stands, as there are false reports concerning every thing that is true. We should not surprize and fright young persons with filly, idle relations, which may have an ill effect on their tender minds; but to avoid this, which is not the greatest inconvenience they may fall into, much discretion is to be used. We ought not to tell them that all these things are groundless and absurd; but own that there is a posfibility of them; and that God only can protect us from their power and malice, if we firmly trust in him. Reason is strongest, holds best with anyage, and is that which will endure: and one who is capable of observing what occurs to his mind in fleep, and curious to know how it may be, is capable of having a rational account of it given him. It is not impossible that one who believed the existence

nothing of this, but give confishent accounts to young persons, as soon as they are capable of them, or want them to folve fome doubt; but there is a great difference betwixt proceeding thus with them, and endeavouring to make them sturdy against the belief of Spirits, by telling them there are no fuch things, nor reason to believe any accounts of this kind. Out of an over great zeal to have them strong, we bend them to the fide of Scepticifm, as if that were a less weakness.

of separate spirits, and that they are constantly in company with him, (for I am apt to think this is true, whatever we believe) might be able to be alone in the dark, or in a room by himself, without fear. There is no true courage, but what is built upon a rational foundation. And to be convinced that a Being of infinite perfection rules over all; and to have nothing, or nothing beyond the confequences of human infirmities, to fear from him, is this foundation. Men were formerly credulous and easy perhaps: now they are affectedly nice, with the air of more philosophy and knowledge: but our Moderns forget that he, who believes that dead matter can produce the effects of life and reason, is a hundred times more credulous than the most thorough-paced Believer that ever existed.

SECT. II.

Dean Berkeley's scheme against the existence of matter, and a material world examined, and shewn inconclusive.

O M E men deny all immaterial, and others all material substance; so that between them they leave nothing at all existing in nature. These two opposite parties help to expose each other; and it is hard to fay, every thing confidered, whose share is greatest in the absurdity of expunging all Being out of existence. Yet thus much we may observe, that the existence of both substances must be very plain, fince each side maintains that the existence of the substance which they themselves affert must be self-evident: for it would be absurd in either of the parties to suppose arguments necessary to prove that anything at all exists. Our dreams having no real external objects, and some of the ancient Writers having suggested that this might be made a ground for doubting whether there were really any fuch objects; a late ingenious and learned Author hath taken

236 Dean Berkeley's scheme examined, the hint, not only to doubt of the reality of matter and a material world, but to pretend to demonstrate the existence of any such thing impossible and contradictory (a). The attempt certainly

(a) Whatever way our dreams may be accounted for, whether by thin membranes rifing from the furfaces of bodies, as Democritus thought; or motions continued in the fenfory after the objects cease to act, as Aristotle and Hobbes maintained; or by new impressions made upon it in the time of fleep, as I have endeavoured to fhew in the last Section: all these ways still suppose the real existence of matter, in supposing both a sensory and objects acting upon it. Hence it feems inconfiftent in Plato, to think the existence of matter might be called in question from this appearance of our dreams; fince on any hypothesis for solving it, the existence of matter must be allowed: or if it be not allowed, all indeed is but a dream, even while we are awake, and the very distinction between dreaming and not dreaming is taken quite away. what reason can we have to argue that objects are imaginary and unreal, while we are awake, because they are imaginary and unreal while we fleep; if we allow no previous difference? Waking itself is made but the most deceitful dream, and we then determine the question, without referring to dreams, and take away all difference between the two states, as to the reality of external objects. And if we previously allow a difference, how can we infer from allowing a difference, that there is no difference? We thus cut off the conclusion a contrary certainly is furprifing. If his books had been written with a defign to excite men to try what

way. Therefore we can never draw the defigned inference, let us make which of the suppositions we please. This is generally the fate of scepticizing; the design frustrates itself.

To make this a little plainer. If matter be supposed necessary in the representation of this phænomenon of dreaming, it must be contradictory to infer from the phænomenon itself that matter does not exist. And if matter be supposed not to exist in the representation of the phænomenon; it must be equally absurd from supposing it not to exist, to infer that therefore it does not actually exist. There is no difference made on that supposition between the appearances of objects in sleep, and their appearance at other times; i. e. the difference on which the argument proceeds, is taken away by the very supposition of the argument; and it is made to contradict itself, as before.

If it should be faid, that it is not necessary to make any supposition at all concerning the existence of matter in this appearance, but to take the appearance itfelf as we find it: I answer, first, That is impossible; the question is concerning the existence of matter, and it is to be proved dubious from a certain appearance; therefore it must be supposed either dubious, or not dubious, before-hand. And, fecondly, not to consider with exactness and care every circumstance of an appearance, from which we would infer fuch a weighty inference,

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what they could fay, in case such a kind of Scepticism should begin to prevail; or as an exercise in an university, to shew how far wit and invention might go to maintain a paradox, there had been little in it: but when a

as the existence of a material world, shews a willingness to mistake, or misrepresent things in this momentous affair. And, thirdly, to say it is not necessary at
all to make any supposition concerning the existence of
matter in this case, is to suppose that the appearance may
be produced indifferently, whether matter exist, or not;
and that again is to contradict all the evidence we have
for the existence of matter in a waking state, before we
come to the doubt of it from the appearance of dreaming; or it is to consound the distinction of the two
states, from which nevertheless we pretend to raise our
doubt and suspicion. Wherefore at any rate it is inconsistent to think this appearance can afford us a ground
of doubting.

Whether our Author could have any other ground to call the existence of matter in question, shall be considered afterward; though it seems evident in itself, that the reality of external objects could never have been questioned, unless we had some time or other been deceived in this point, either while asleep, or while awake. Had not this happened, all suspicion would have been prevented, and doubting thought a piece of extravagance.

person of great capacity and learning seems ferious, and writes pieces, one after another, to support this kind of Scepticism, and continues in these sentiments for such a number of years; if it be not carrying an ungenteel fort of a banter a great deal too far, one cannot tell what to think of it. For it seems impossible that a man should be seriously perfuaded that he has neither country nor parents, nor any material body, nor eats, nor drinks, nor lyes in a house; but that all these things are mere illusions, and have no existence but in the fancy.

That which makes it necessary here to examine this scheme, which denies the posfibility of matter, is because all the arguments I have offered for the Being of a God in Sect. I. and II. Vol. I. are drawn from the confideration of this impossible thing; viz. from the inertia of matter, the motion of matter, the cohesion of matter, &c. and every one fees what impropriety, or rather what repugnance there must be, to speak of the vis inertiæ of ideas, the motion or gravity of ideas, the elasticity or cohesion of ideas. Whence these arguments must amount to nothing, if there be nothing but ideas instead of the ob-

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jects of our ideas, as being drawn from properties which can belong to no subject, and which therefore must be impossible. Thus there must either be no truth in what I have said, or in what this Author advances; for two such opposite accounts of nature cannot both be true: and if the conclusions in these two Sections be solid, this itself will be a weighty argument against his scheme. However, I shall here endeavour to shew the inconclusiveness of it from reasons particularly applied; and try at least to remove so weighty an objection, if I cannot add more light to what hath already been said.

II. In considering this new scheme, the following particulars are to be remarked. The nature or essence of things is altogether different from their existence; the former being the ideas of the Divine Intellect, eternally consistent so as to be made to subsist together in the same subject, by his power, whenever it should so seem good to his wisdom: the latter, viz. their existence, then commences, when his power is exerted to this effect; or when this co-subsistence of properties is first actually effected, with respect to a deter-

determined time and place (b). And from thence it follows, that there are eternal properties in the natures of all things, as being

(b) In the Universal dictionary, or Cyclopædia, under the word Existence, it is observed, that the existence of created beings hath relation to time, place, and a cause: That effence is explained by the chief and radical property of a thing, or all the properties and existence by specifying the time, place or cause; and then it is added-"The foundation and occasion of this distinction, is this; " that effence belongs to the question, What is it? Quid " eft? But existence to the question, Is it? An est? 3tio, " Existence necessarily presupposes essence, and cannot be " conceived without it; but effence may be conceived " without existence; in that essence belongs equally to "things that are in potentia, and in actu; but existence " only to those in actu. Note however, that this does or not obtain in God, about whose nature and effence, the " mind cannot think, without conceiving his existence." By being in potentia here, must be understood, being producible by the power of God, according to his ideas. Farther, nature and effence are here fynonymous, and, I think, rightly. Lastly, It is well observed here that as essence, nature, eternal properties, or eternal truth, have no relation to a particular time; fo neither have they to place, or cause; or, they are as little circumscribed in place as time; and to have a cause is incompetent to them, being eternal. This is one way of coming at a view of the eternity and immensity of the necessary mind, where these were eternally known.

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originally,

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originally, eternally confistent ideas; for the eternal confistency and agreement of these ideas, makes these eternal properties. And from hence again it follows, that we can demonstrate several eternal truths concerning the natures or essences of things: for to shew the necessity, or necessary consistence, of these eternal properties, is to demonstrate eternal truths concerning their natures. To exemplify this. Solidity and extension were eternally confistent in the divine ideas, so as to be made to subsist in the same subject, (of which subject indeed we have no idea; but God hath, and had it before the subject itself was:) this eternal confistency makes the nature of this thing eternal. There was farther, a necessary connexion between the ideas of folidity and refistance; if it did not refist it would be unfolid: or the idea of not-resisting is inconfistent with the idea of folidity. Moreover there was an inconfistency between the idea of resisting and the idea of effecting what it refisted, [viz. a change of its present state.] And therefore from this respect, or habitude, of these ideas to each other, this property, That it is impossible this thing should ever effect a change of its present state, eternally and

and necessarily belongs to the nature of it. And therefore, when we shew the necessity of this property, we demonstrate an eternal truth concerning the nature of this thing. Therefore, as before, I infer that we can demonstrate feveral eternal truths concerning the natures or essences of things (c.)

III. On the other hand, the existence of things hath no eternal properties; that is, eternally confistent, or necessarily related ideas, belonging to it. These were all in the Divine Mind, long before any thing but himself actually existed; and belong to their natures, not their actual existence, which was arbitrary and depended upon his good pleafure to affect. The property just now mentioned, v. g. is no way predicable concerning the existence of matter, nor true only when it exists; but concerning its nature, and true whether it exists, or not. Therefore there is no eternal truth demonstrable concerning the existence of Beings, (the ne-

⁽c) The natures of things with respect to us, are the confistent ideas in our minds, which are copies (though but imperfect, and in part) of the eternally confiftent ideas in the Divine Mind.

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cessarily existing Being excepted, who is out of the present controversy) unless it be this, That their existence was eternally possible, as depending upon his pleasure, and being performable by his power: for fuch truth would have supposed such eternal necessary properties predicable concerning their existence; or that it had been necessary (d.) Therefore, fince the existence of matter, the foul of man, or other finite immaterial Beings, is only possible, or contingent, the only queftion concerning their existence is, Whether it be actually effected, or not? It is not demonstrable as the existence of God is; for his existence is a part of his nature, and inseparable from it: but there is no necessary connexion between their nature, which was eternal in the Divine Mind, and their existence which is only possible. Nor can there be a connexion between any thing that is necesfary, and a thing that is but barely possible.

⁽d) The existence of a thing, which is but barely possible, implies no contradiction (absolutely speaking) never to be; otherwise its existence would become some time or other necessary; and that eternal properties should belong to a thing that may never be, is absurd.

IV. Thus it appears that to require an abfolute demonstration of the existence of matter, of the foul of man, (of man in general I mean, for no man wants a demonstration of the existence of his own soul) or of other finite immaterial Beings, is to mistake the nature of fuch a demonstration, and of the subject it is conversant about. It is to require a demonstration of the necessary existence of those Beings, whose existence, ex concessis, is contingent: for fuch an absolute demonstration must have been always true; just as any demonstration of the property of a geometrical figure was always true. That is, it must have been always true that matter existed. Supposing a possible being really existed, there is no other way to shew the existence of it to another, but by the effects it produces, or the perceptions it raises in some percipient Being; or by shewing it would be an absurdity for such effects, or perceptions, to have any other cause.

V. Yet because this contradiction, viz. That a contingent Being exists necessarily, cannot be demonstrated; some men have un-

skilfully resolved to make a doubt of it, Whether matter actually existed. This is a wilful determined kind of Scepticism: because a contradiction cannot be shewn true, therefore they refolve (nay I may fay force themselves) to doubt; and if it could be shewn true, there would be no need of forcing themselves to become Scepticks; for it would be unavoidable. All truth, as has often been faid, stands or falls together. The existence of necessary and contingent Being would be upon the same level: either all Being would be but barely possible, and once nothing at all might have existed; or all Being should be equally necessary, and nothing that exists could ever have not existed.

VI. Matter therefore, the human foul, and other finite spirits, are contingent Beings: the idea of matter, v. g. was eternally confistent in the Divine Mind, and is consistent in our minds: but the idea of any thing impossible to exist, or of an impossible effect, can never be consistent. The reason is, an inconsistency in the idea and conception. And this shews the possibility of matter's existing, whenever it should please Infinite Wisdom.

dom. Since therefore the existence of it is possible, nor implies any contradiction; it is impossible for any man to demonstrate the non-existence of it. For that would be to undertake to demonstrate a possibility impossible. This, in few words, might be an anfwer to, and shews us the absurdity of, Dean Berkeley's undertaking, who (as I faid) pretends to prove, that the existence of matter, or bodies, out of a mind, is a contradiction in terms (e). He all along allows the confistency of the idea of it; and yet contends, by a new kind of reasoning, that the object of this confistent idea implies a contradiction in terms to be made exist: for by the same argument, whatever it be, he might prove that any thing, besides the Deity, implies a contradiction in Terms to be made exist; or deny entirely a creating power to him: fince the confistency of the ideas in the Divine Intellect is that which constitutes the possibility

(e) Under the word Body, in the Cyclopædia, a part of the long citation from Dean Berkeley is --- "On

[&]quot;the whole it appears, that the existence of bodies out

of a mind perceiving them, is not only impossible and

a contradiction in terms; but were it possible, nay real,

[&]quot; it were impossible we should ever know it."

of the existence of all other things. If we add to this, that the existence of body without the mind; or of a real, solid, figured, divisible, resisting substance; for the idea of it in the mind is no more such a substance, than the idea of a Centaur is a real Centaur; if, I fay, we add to this, that the existence of matter hath all the evidence for it, as will foon appear, that the nature of the thing can admit of, without requiring the contradiction above to be proved; it is not easy to guess what justifiable design a man could propose to himself in such an extraordinary attempt, as to demonstrate that the beautiful system of material nature; heaven and earth; the fun, moon, and stars; the bodies of men and beafts; all the wonders in the vegetable and animal economy; their usefulness to mankind; and the kindness of God in bestowing them, are nothing but a dream within the mind.

VII. But to be more particular as to the nature of this undertaking: A man who believes there is no fuch thing as a folid, refifting, figured fubstance; no material world; no fuch Beings as men, compounded of body and spirit;

spirit; in fine, no books, writing, printing, speaking, &c. but that all these are ideas in the mind only, having no existence without it; can never propose consistently with his own belief, to dispute with men, or propagate his doubting among them. He knows not what things they are which he would convince, or if there be any Beings differing from him in opinion: for all these ideas that are excited in him, as of beings maintaining the contrary of what he maintains, may be only ideas raised in him, by some spirit that hath a defign to make a fool of, and impose upon him; as he thinks all the world befides are cheated with other delufory ideas: What greater evidence hath he for the existence of other men's fouls, than of their bodies; though he may have more for that of his own? We only collect concerning the fouls of other men from the spontaneous motions, and actions of their bodies: these, according to him, belong to nothing. Besides, he hath nothing but ideas, or dreams, when he speaks, writes, publishes books. How doth he pretend that these dreams of his should be communicated to other Beings, granting that they existed? In short, his whole enterprise proceeds

proceeds upon the supposition of the reality of what he is going to confute. And thus, I think, he puts it in his adversary's power, to prove from the very nature of his attempt, that he doth not believe himself, and so to confute him without using any other arguments. This is the fate of the generality of Sceptics: their very design opposes and deseats itself, as may be observed in other cases (f).

A man

(f) This is observable in the ancient Sceptics, the followers of Pyrrho, those who first affected to be distinguished by that name, and to be reckoned a separate Seet: They pretended to give a demonstration, to prove that no demonstration could be given, which was very extraordinary; for if their demonstration were true, the defign of it was defeated, and if it were not true, the defign of it would still be defeated: and at any rate they could not believe themselves. Diogenes Laertius says, (in the life of Pyrrho) " They took away all demonstration, judgment, " fign, cause, motion, learning, generation, and that any "thing was good or evil by nature;" and then gives their general Demonstration for all this --- Avneouv & outor κὸ πασαν απόδειξιν, κὸ κειδήριον, κὸ σεμείον, κὸ αἴτιον, મે κίνησιν, η μάθνσιν, η γένεσιν, η το Φύσει, τὶ εἶναι elaθον ή κακον. [Their demonstration of this follows.] Πᾶσα γας ἀπόδειξις (Φασίν) ή έξ ἀποδεδει μένων σύγκεται χρημάτων, ή έξ άναποδείκων · εί μεν ουν έξ άπο-SESETLIEVEV.

A man of this belief, not to contradict himfelf, should never open his mouth, (the idea

θεθειμένων, κάκεινα θεήσεια, τινος αποθείξεως, κα 'νιευθεν eis απαρου· ei ή έξ αναποδάκλων, ήτοι πάνλων, ή τινών, ή η ένος μόνε διςαζομένε, η το όλον είναι άναπόδεικλοι. Here is a Demonstration in rigorous form. And, as if one general demonstration was not enough, they proceed to give particular demonstrations concerning all the points mentioned. Here, by the by, we may observe, that even denying supposes some certain principle; otherwise there could be no reason for denying any thing (as was observed before) more than for affirming; and that the Sceptic or Pyrrhonist, while he blames other men for the prefumption of affirming and maintaining, affirms and maintains out of opposition, and that with great vehemence; in which case he acts quite out of character; for to be confiftent with himfelf, he should observe a profound silence. [See Sect. V. No 2. Vol. I. and the Note (b) No 3.]

But how do they support the character of doubting in all this fury and heat of maintaining and affirming? Why, nothing is more easy. They affirm and maintain that their arguments, after they have overthrown all other arguments, at length overthrow themselves, like a dose of phylick, which last of all purges itself off. Καλ αὐθῷ ή τετω τῷ λόξω λόξο ανδικεθαι : ος κὶ ἔτΟ μελά τὸ ἀνελείν τές άλλες, αυτός ύθ' έαυλέ περίλραπείς απόλλυθαι κατ ίσον τοῖς καθαρίκοῖς, α την ύλην προ-Exxeivavla,

of his mouth, perhaps I should say) but lament in filence the misery of his condition, his lonely

εκκρίνανλα, κι αυλά υπεκκρίνελαι κι έξαπόλλυλαι. Ibid. Thus they are fatisfied, provided their reason had the honour of being overthrown by nothing but its own force. They affirmed, That we must not affirm that there are four elements, because there are four elements. - Oide vae το τέτλαρα είναι τα ς ειχεία, έκ το τέτλα α είναι τα ςοιχεία, βεβαιωίέον. That we must either say, every thing is true, or every thing is falle.—"Ητοι γεν πάνλα άληθη ρητέον, η πάνλα ψευδη. They faid things were hot or cold, not from any natural quality, but by law and custom-Δημόκει] Τὰς ποιότηλας έκβαλών · ίνα Φησί. Νόμω Δυχρον, νόμω Sepusy. Accordingly, Demophon was cold in the fun, and warm in the shade. -- Ev griã έθάλπελο, ἐν ἡλίω ή ἐρείζε. They did not all agree whether they should be called Pyrrhonists, or not; because allowing that they knew Pyrrho's fentiments, was allowing that they knew fomething, contrary to their great principle— Έι γάρ τὸ καθ' ἐκάτερον κίνημα τῆς διανόιας άληπίον έςιν, έκ εἰσόμεθα την Πυρρων Ο διάθεσιν. μη είδοτες ή, 8 Πυρρώνειοι καλοίμεθα αν. This was the accuracy of doubting!

But none of *Pyrrho*'s followers came up to his own pitch; for having taken away the distinction between honest and dishonest, just and unjust; having found out that nothing was according to truth; that men acted by custom or law, not according to nature, because any thing was

lonely state, and the mist and darkness he is inextricably bewildered in.

And

not that very thing more than another thing: he fet about making his life agreeable to his principles; (if we could fay that a Sceptick had principles against their own principle;) he avoided no danger, would not stir out of the way, though a chariot or waggon was to go over him; would not go about, if a precipice was before him, nor beat off a dog, if he came upon him; and in this rigid observation of his principles, his friends were obliged to follow him to prevent accidents. I shall still give my authority. - Outer 200 ξΦασκεν 8 τε καλόν, ε τε αίσχρον (fays his Historian) έτε δίκων, έτε άδικον : κ όμοίως έπι πάνιων, μηδεν είναι τη άληθεῖα, νόμω ή κ έθα πάνλα τες άνθεώπες πεάτλαν : κ γάρ μάλλον τόδε η τόδε είναι έκας ον * ακόλεθος δ' ην τω βίω, μηδεν έκτρεπόμεν Φ, μηδε Φυλατίομει Φ, απανία ύφις άμεν Φ, άμάξας, εί τύχοι, η κεημνές, η κυνάς, η όσα τοιαῦτα, μηδεν τ αισθήσεσιν επιλεέπων σώζεσθαι μένιοι (καθά Φασιν οί περί του Καρύςιον 'Ανλίζονον) ύπο των γνωσίμων παρακολεθενίων. If he would yield nothing to his fenfes (as here 'tis faid) he should not (agreeably to his ocun principles it feems) have at all made use of them, nor walked upon his legs, nor done as other men do; but lain in one place, without motion or action. He was once greatly ashamed for having driven away a dog that would have torn him, and made a ferupulous apology for acting against his principles. But of this enough.

And this argument from the inconfistency of the method is applicable to him who but barely

Now where can we expect to get free from bigetry if it runs to fuch heights in Scepticism itself? It is impossible those men could understand or believe themfelves; and yet we fee to what abfurdity their zeal for maintaining [one cannot tell what] carried them. How little reason therefore have men of this way of thinking to object credulity and bigotry? The man who refuses his affent to plain truths is every way worse, and commits a greater violence on his faculties, than he who believes things without fufficient proof, and certainly more sophistry, cunning and disingenuous shifting is required to maintain that Truth cannot be found out, than there would honest application and industry to find it out: and farther, fince this is the great principle of Academism and Scepticism, That Truth cannot be perceived, on maintaining of which their honour is staked; the men under these denominations cannot be said so much to have a disposition to find out the truth, as a fixt resolution to oppose it. Cicero does all he can to make good Pyrrho's iσοθένεια των λόδων, or equality of arguments on both fides; he labours to keep a due balance between truth and falshood. It is mean and unworthy to see him, upon this account, endeavouring to undermine the truths in geometry, by little impotent cavils. Mr. Bayle, in his Controversy concerning the preferableness of Atheism to Superstition, doth not so much as endeavour to keep the balance; but leans with all his force to the

wrong

barely doubts, if he offers to dispute with the Beings themselves, in order to be satisfied himself whether they are; or to convince them that they are not: for this disputing supposes the reality of the thing he pretends to doubt of (g). But when one undertakes to demonftrate

wrong fide. And a certain great Author is fometimes a Dogmatist, and gives us a scheme of virtue independent of any Deity; and sometimes a regular and precise Aca. demist. " There is nothing so foolish and deluding (says 66 he) as a partial Scepticism. For while the doubt is caft only on one fide, the certainty grows fo much "ftronger on the other." Can any thing be more absurd than to cast the doubt upon two opposite and contrary propositions, as if both might be false, or both true! I do not mean that objections should not be put with all their force: but there are some truths so glaring that a man cannot cast doubt upon them, without committing much violence on his reason. The art of writing is made to confift in keeping an æquilibrium between the arguments on opposite sides. This may catch a little vain applause; but it is against the interests of truth, and against the rational nature.

(g) Mr. Woollaston says, [Sect. 3. Prop. 4. pag. 43. in the Note (a).] " The question in Plato, Τί ἀν τις « ἔχοι τεκμήριον ἀποδείξαι, εί τις ἔροιλο, του έτως ἐν τῷ ες παρόνλι, πότερον καθεύδομβυ, κι πώνλω α διανέμεθα « evergorlowly, κ. τ. λ. may have place among the velitations

strate to us, that we have nothing whereby another could know that we exist; since he cannot do this, but by supposing the truth of what he pretends to demonstrate false, one is at a loss what notion to form of such a procedure. He may be justified, I think, in saying, "The strangeness of the attempt is not to be parallel'd." And how our Au-

c litations of Philosophers; but a man can scarcely proof pose it to himself seriously. If he doth, the answer " will attend it." But, with fubmission, I think it can have no place even disputandi gratia, without this contradiction in the method. For the supposing every thing which we think to be but a dream (though we are certain that we ourselves, who thus dream exist) is supposing all other things unreal, or only phantastical illufions: and then we must suppose ourselves left alone, furrounded only with our own visions and fancies; and how a man can velitate with others in this folitary condition is hard to imagine, unless he make a contrary Supposition, destructive of the first, viz. That other Beings are not unreal. And if men cannot find a handle to scepticize from, without making contradictory suppofitions, they should be satisfied of the absurdity of the attempt. We cannot conceive how truth and certainty could have been more guarded than it is. Men must previously suppose a contradiction, before they can attack it. And if this be confidered, we may justly wonder why the reputation of Scepticism should be so great.

thor can be vindicated from this contradictory procedure, I do not see: for he pretends to demonstrate the impossibility of the existence of mens bodies, and thereby denies all evidence that other men can have for the existence of their fouls; which indeed amounts to denying their existence altogether, and demonstrating the impossibility of it to these very beings at the same time.

VIII. The great reason why this Author pretends to doubt of the existence of material substance, or to demonstrate it impossible, is because we are percipient of nothing but our own perceptions and ideas; and because figure, colour, refistance, &c. is not this substance (b).

(b) In the Cyclopædia, the citation above begins thus; (Against the existence of Bodies, or any external world, Mr. Berkeley argues very strenuously.) - That neither our thoughts, passions, nor ideas formed by the imagination, exist without the mind, he observes is allowed; and that the various sensations impressed on the mind, whatever objects they may compose, cannot exist otherwise than in a mind perceiving them, is not less evident. This appears from the meaning of the term exist, &c. Here, that sensations compose their objects, wants a little proof, and is at best a very equivocal expression.

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Now (to observe here the extent of this kind of doubting) this argument will equally shew spiritual substance to be a contradiction in terms, as well as matter: for we are percipient of nothing but our own perceptions and ideas, with respect to the foul of another man, as well as with respect to his body; or if this be true in either, it is true in both. Activity and perceptivity, the only properties whereby we infer the existence of spiritual substance, are not that substance, but qualities belonging to it, any more than figure, motion, &c. are corporeal substance. If then this argument is good for any thing in the first case, it is as good in the fecond; and if it demonstrate matter out of existence, it equally demonstrates all substance out of existence, save the mind thus percipient, without excepting the Deity himself. So that, brought to its genuine and undissembled issue, it ends in that kind of knowledge mentioned once or twice above, called Egomism (i). Dean Berkeley,

⁽i) Quelques Spinosistes sentant que l'evidence leur échappe a tout moment, dans les pretendues démonstrations de leur Maître, sont tombés dans une espece de Pyrrhonisme insense, nomme l'Egomisme, où chacun se croit le seul etre existent. Mr. Ramsay's Discourse upon Mythology, Part. 1. near the end.

I think, is not far from owning this. In Sect. 138. of what he calls his Principles, he hath these words: "If therefore 'tis " impossible that any degree of these powers " [willing, thinking, and perception of ideas, " to wit] should be represented in an idea or " notion, 'tis evident there can be no idea or " notion of a spirit."—Here we may observe that, if we neither have any idea or noticn of spiritual substance itself, nor of these properties whereby we could only come to the knowledge of fuch a fubstance, (activity and perceptivity, the examples of which he affigns) it feems impossible that such a thing could ever have entered into the thoughts of men. These particulars ought to be well confidered by those who run so greedily into this scheme. It is true, thinking, willing, &c. cannot be painted in the imagination, -as objects having figure and magnitude may: but might not this Author thus prove, that we can have no idea or notion of virtue, justice, truth? And if this consequence be fair, as it seems to be; this scheme is a complication of all the species of Scepticism that have ever yet been broached. Notion extends not only to the images of corporeal objects

in the fancy, but to whatever is the object of the understanding (k). It is not enough that an Author is not explicit in owning all the absurdities which arise from his scheme; or that he denies them: others will assign

(k) Des Cartes and Mr. Locke, take the word idea itfelf in the same sense. Mr. Locke says, (Introduction, feet. 8.) " It being that Term, which, I think, ferves best to stand for whatsoever is the object of the under-" standing, when a man thinks, I have used it to exor press whatever is meant by Phantasm, Notion, Species, " or whatever it is, which the mind can be employed " about in thinking." Des Cartes says in his geometrical method of proving the existence of God, and the Soul, Defin. 2. Ideæ nomine intelligo cujuslibet cogitationis formam illam, per cujus immediatam perceptionem ipsius ejufdem cogitationis conscius sum; adeò ut nibil possim verbis exprimere intelligendo id quod dico, quin ex hoc ipso certum sit in me esse ideam ejus quod verbis illis significatur. Atque ita non solas imagines in phantasia depictas ideas voco: imo ipsas hic nullo modo voco ideas, quatenus sunt in phantasia corporea, hoc est in parte aliqua cerebri depictæ, sed tantum quatenus mentem ipsam in illam cerebri partem conversam informant. This is very distinct and full. Dean Berkeley, who will not allow us to have any notion or idea of thinking, willing, &c. should give us his acceptation of the word; or shew us what is amiss in Mr. Locke or Des Cartes's acceptation. Whatever he may fay about abstract ideas, it is certain all true demonffration is in abstract ideas.

his

his authority to justify their maintaining them. Epicurus faid many things well-Cùm bene præsertim multa, ac divinitus ipsis Immortalibus de Divis dare dicta suëritand hath left many fine things in writing: and yet when this was observed to Cicero, who condemned his philosophy, he answers, Non quæro quid dicat, sed quid convenienter rationi possit, & sententiæ suæ dicere.

IX. But to return. If Dean Berkeley, to evade the inconfistency mentioned in N° 7. of disputing with, and endeavouring to convince no body at all for ought he knows, should fay that God excites the ideas of mens fouls in him, (provided he will allow that there can be any idea, or notion, of fouls) then all his certainty for the existence of mens fouls, is because God would not excite the ideas of these Beings in us, to make us believe they were, unless they really were. And this would be founding his belief of immaterial substance, precisely upon the reafon which Dr. Clarke hath brought, to shew that we cannot possibly be deceived, in concluding that material substance really exists without the mind. That is, he cannot avoid proceed-

proceeding in contradiction to himself, and his own tenets, without having recourse to the force of the Doctor's demonstration (1): and that demonstration overthrows his tenets. This I take to be a hard *Dilemma* upon the scheme.

X. Here we may farther observe, fince Dean Berkeley's argument demonstrates all fubstance out of existence, equally with material substance; what small reason he had to proclaim (Sect. 93. of his Book) his victory over the Atheists and Sceptics. His words are "Without which funthinking mat-" ter, to wit] your Epicureans, Hobbists, " and the like, have not even the shadow " of a pretence, but become the most cheap and eafy triumph in the world."-And again, Sect 96. " Matter being once ex-" pelled out of nature, drags with it so many " feeptical and impious notions, &c." This is, I think, as if one should advance, that the best way for a woman to silence those, who may attack her reputation, is to turn a

common

⁽¹⁾ See this Demonstration in the Cyclopædia, under the word Body, immediately after Dean Berkeley's arguments against the existence of matter.

common prostitute. He puts us into a way of denying all things, that we may get rid of the absurdity of those who deny some things.

XI. If we will talk foberly, though the evidence of sense is not the greatest we are capable of; yet fince it is the most universal and constant, fitted to all the concerns of life, and the capacities of all men; fince (except in a few cases, the causes of which we know, and can rectify the judgment) there is a fatisfactory agreement between the informations of it, through all different ages, and in all countries; and fince it is in effect, the first foundation of all our knowledge, in our prefent state of union with matter; the man who endeavours to overturn the evidence of sense universally, endeavours to introduce the wildest and most unbounded Scepticism, let his pretences be what they will. And Dean Berkeley, by teaching men to distrust their fenses, teaches them to distrust his Book in the first place; it is but an idea like other things, every word and line in it: all his actions and great undertakings are but mere dream and chimæra; and his defigns disap-S 4 point

point themselves in every respect. If once we resulte that reason which Dr. Clarke has assigned for believing the existence of external objects, and a material world; there is in truth no stopping till a man has denied everything that exists without his own mind, except it be perhaps the existence of some delusory Being who constantly cheats and imposes upon him. How this can be such an antidote against Scepticism and Atheism is not easy to be imagined. We might with equal reason affirm, I think, that putting out the eyes is the best cure for dimness of sight (m).

XII. It may not perhaps be foreign to the purpose, to take notice here of the contradiction in terms, which is pretended to be in afferting the existence of matter. It is (if any where) in Sect. 4. of Dean Berkeley's Principles; for in Sect. 7. he speaks of having demonstrated his conclusion; and in Sect. 21. he says, Arguments, à posteriori, are unnecessary for consirming what, if he mistakes not, has

been

⁽m) It is true, Des Cartes doubts of the evidence of fense; but it was only to shew it more certain afterwards; it was rather calling his knowledge to an examen; yet I humbly conceive his method was wrong; of which more immediately.

been sufficiently demonstrated, à priori; therefore in Sect. 22. he apologizes for dilating on that, which may with the utmost evidence, be demonstrated in a line or two, to any one that is capable of the least reflection. In short, all that I could find for it is in that fourth Section, and contained in the following questions.—" For what are the foremen-"tioned objects [houses, mountains, rivers,] " but the things we perceive by sense? And " what, I pray you, do we perceive, besides our own ideas or fensations? And is it not " plainly repugnant, that any of these, or " any combination of them, should exist un-"perceived?" This is but a forry affair to be the subject of three new pieces. We shall consider it query by query, as it is proposed. And first, What are the forementioned objects, but the things we perceive by sense? This query feems not to agree well with the next. Here it is allowed that we perceive things by sense, or by the mediation of sense (for these things seem at a distance from the fense) which are supposed, and called objects (of fense it would feem); and in the next it is taken for granted, that we perceive nothing but our own fensations; that is, nothing by means

means of the fenses. This is what one may call fleight-of-hand reasoning. Let us join both questions in one. What are the objects of our fensations, but those very sensations themfelves? This question proposed thus somewhat less juglingly, implies or supposes the truth of this proposition. Our sensations have no objeEts existing without the mind: which is really the whole point in controversy. And to take this for granted, is to beg the thing to be proved; or to suppose the debate at an end. Those mountains, rivers, houses, we all suppose to exist without the mind; and although we should be wrong, it remains to prove that we are wrong, that being the whole of the dispute. To affirm this, or ask if it be not fo, will never do any thing, We may farther add, fince he allows objects perceived by fense in this query, that sensations cannot be objects to themselves: a sensation may become the object of a reflex act of the mind upon it; and it can become an object to the mind in no other manner. But when a fensation thus becomes the object of a posterior perception, it is not the object to itfelf (n). When a man beholds the circulation of

(n) At this rate we must say, that brutes have no objects

of the blood, by the help of a microscope, he doth not admire his own simple perception, more than when he beholds a pebble; but fomething which he thinks at least, the cause and object of it. We might as well fay, when a man laughs at some ridiculous thing, he laughs at his own laughter only. However, we may answer the question categorically: That these forementioned objests, [rivers, houses, mountains,] are the very things we perceive by fense. This is a proper answer enough to such a question; and we may add, that these objects excite fensations in the mind, by motion, or acting on the organs; whether by reflecting the rays of light, by raising an undulation in the air, by immediate contact, &c. and this motion is propagated by the nerves to the brain, where the foul (there present) is apprized of them thus acting. Now, it is no matter whether what we say be true or not; though it be only a conjecture formed at random, if it affigns to fensations their

jects of their fenfations, fince fenfations cannot be objects to themselves; for they make no reflex acts of the mind, and there are no material objects from without, according to this scheme.

distinct objects, without a contradiction in terms: this puts D. B. to the trouble of another demonstration, as much as if it were the real case that obtains.

XIII. His second question is, And what I pray you do we perceive, besides our own ideas and sensations? A consistent answer to this follows from what was faid just now. We perceive, besides our sensations themselves, the objects of them; or we perceive objects existing from without, by the mediation of fensation, or motion produced; fince we are conscious not only of sensation excited, but that it is excited by fome cause besides ourfelves; for we fuffer it, often against our will. This cause we call matter: and D. B. fays it is God Almighty. Hitherto there is no contradiction. He fays it is one thing, and we fay it is another: and so far he hath no reafon to fay we contradict ourselves, more than we have to fay the fame of him: nay nor fo much. It is pleasant to observe D. B.'s address: he would have us to allow that matter is a sensation; or that our sensations are the fame thing with their objects, which being the thing in debate, is still begging the argument,

gument, by an equivocal question. So he might prove that, if a man in a dark night were groping out his way, with a long pole in his hand, and felt something resist it, which made him turn another way, lest he should run his head against the wall; so he might prove, I fay, that it were a contradiction for the man to fay, there was any thing there, besides the pole itself, by this fame query-For what, I pray you, fays he, do you perceive, besides the pole in your own hand?

XIV. We may here again observe, as in N° 8. that this query of D. B.'s eafily turns against himself. We say, that which excites fensations in us is generally the objects of those sensations, existing from without: unless in the instances of dreams and phrenfies, in which there is still a manifest difference from ordinary fensation. He says, God, who is not the object of our sensations, is the immediate cause of them. How doth he disprove what we affert? Thus. You perceive nothing but your perceptions. The cause of your perceptions, which you affign, is not your perceptions themselves.

There-

Therefore you do not perceive this cause of your perceptions. Therefore this cause of your perceptions is not at all; or is but the fame thing with those very perceptions. Here the fundamental reason of this inference is, because we perceive nothing but our own perceptions. But D. B. doth not perceive any thing but his own perceptions, more than other men: and if his not perceiving the cause of his perception, is a sufficient ground of denying such cause, or of making it the fame thing with the very perceptions themselves; then God, not being perceived, either is not; or is but a very perception in the mind of man: Absit blasphemia! And thus his own argument will exterminate out of nature, any other cause of perception he pleases to pitch upon. He says, matter being once expelled out of nature, drags with it, &c. It is true, matter is but a contingent substance in nature; but being once expelled out of nature, it drags more along with it, in his method of reasoning, than he is aware of: and it drags least of all our sceptical and impious notions with it, as he pretends. To suppose it absent multiplies these notions without end.

XV. The

XV. The last question in this demonstration, and which he defigned should carry home the conviction of the whole, is, And is it not plainly repugnant, that any of these [ideas] or any combination of them; should exist unperceived? Here you see, he presumes you have allowed him, according to his last query, that sensations and their objects are the same thing; and on this presumption, his argument indeed is conclusive: but if you are not thus far complaifant, he is at a loss. And I answer, Our ideas surely cannot exist without the mind: but their objects may; and do. And they are still fensible objects, though they fall not under the fenses, at all times and in all places: i. e. though they are not objected to the sense, in places where they are not; and at times when our fenses are not directed to the places where they are. With respect to this it is obfervable, that he hath another very short way of demonstrating his main point. He supposes that the term [to exist] hath the same import, when applied to corporeal things, as to be perceived (0): afferting (ftrongly indeed) that it

(o) In the Cyclopædia, loc. citat, This appears from

272 Dean Berkeley's scheme examined, it is otherwise unintelligible. Whence it clearly follows; Matter which is not perceived.

from the meaning of the term exist, when applied to senfible things. Thus, the table I write on exists: i. e. I fee and feel it. - But the existence of unthinking Beings, without any relation to their being perceived, is unintelligible: their effe is percipi.

One cannot well pass by the argument here, without enquiring a little into the reasonableness of it. This proposition [their effe is percipi] is delivered with the air of an axiom; but if it be, it is incumbent on the Author, I think (who feems to be the first that discovered it) to Thew the necessary connexion between the terms effe and percipi, in it. It cannot be said to be felf-evident, on which account certain propositions were first called axioms; fince others cannot find out the felf-evidence, or even the truth of it. We fay indeed with respect to the Deity, his effe is existere, because necessary existence belongs to his nature; but no body allows that to be perceived belongs to the effe or nature of matter; fo that this axiom appears to me, after the exactest enquiry I am able to make, to be fuch an axiom as begs the question.

He argues from the meaning of the word [exist] that, when spoken of material things, it is the same as to be perceived; but who befides the Author himfelf, hath affixed this meaning to that term? Is it the common acceptation of the word, when applied to material things? Hath he the Philosophers, or even the vulgar on his fide in this, as he feems to infinuate elfewhere? Pythagoras afferted ed, doth not exist! But the Artificer seems to understand that his tools exist all the intermediate

afferted that the earth was spherical, and habitable quite round [γν, κ αὐτὴν σφαιροιός, κ περιοικεμένην εναι ἢ κ αὐθίποδας κ τὰ κμῖν κάτω, ἐκείνοις ἀνω. Diog. Laert.] But he did not mean that the Antipodes did not exist because he did not perceive, i. e. hear and see them; as he must have done according to our Author's acceptation of the word. Again, Virgil says,

Moreover, what reason can be affigned why the existence of matter should be confined to the being perceived, more than the existence of other substance? If the reason of the Author's affertion be, That what is not perceived, neither by itself, nor any other thing, doth not exist, then any other substance (the human foul, v. g.) if it doth not always perceive itself, must have intervals of non-existence, as it ceases to perceive itself, or otherwise: at least the Author should have proved that it always thinks, to shew it has no pauses or blanks of existence. It is true, it must always think upon his scheme, having no restraint or interruption from matter; but Vol. II.

termediate time, after he lays them by at night, till he takes them up again next morning. And after this, it is unaccountable how this Author could pretend (Sect. 82.) that he doth not deny even corporeal subfrance, in the vulgar sense; but only inert senseless matter: as if the Artificer thought his tools were artful, sensible matter; or disappeared when he had them not in his hands; or even then, were nothing but the ideas of instruments in the ideas of his hands.

then he will have a difficulty to explain, how it could be so affected without matter, as to make this appear doubtful. I might take notice of the variation and proportion of existence, (so to speak) the rifing and falling of it, upon his scheme: for instance, The Table I write on, when I do not perceive it, doth not exist; but when I fit down to write on it, it comes again into existence. If another person perceives it along with me, must it have a double existence? And if three of us fit at it, must. its existence be three times greater, than if I looked at it alone? And, lastly, if it were true that being perceived constituted the existence of matter, and all created substance, the Infinite Mind perceives them without intermission; and this will constitute the continued exiftence of matter upon his own principles, I think; unless he would say that matter exists continually, as the Deity perceives it, and doth not exist continually, as other Beings do not perceive it.

All

All this then ends in the following childish sophism: sensible things are but the objects of sense. Whenever they are not the objects of sense, they are no longer sensible things. Therefore, when they are not the objects of fense, or not perceived, they are not. But would not D. B. allow his house to be a combustible thing, unless it were actually on fire? He might, with equal force of reason prove, that unless it were in slame, it were no house at all.

XVI. This is his demonstration. We may farther observe that it doth no great honour to this new scheme, nor those who pretend to admire it, that it forces the Author to suspect, that even Mathematicks may not be very found knowledge at the bottom. In Sect. 118. he fays, "To be plain, we ful-" pect the Mathematicians are no less deep-"ly concerned, than other men in the errors " arising from abstract general ideas, and the " existence of objects without the mind." And in Sect. 119. he fays, the theorems in Arithmetick are difficiles nugæ. A man ought to have a vast deal of merit, and to have obliged the world with furprifing discoveries, to T . 2 justify

justify his attacking these sciences at this rate; or rather no merit possible can warrant it. And it must give us but a bad opinion of the notions that necessitate a man to declare himself thus. What necessity they lay him under, we shall see instantly. In Sect. 22. he expresses himself after the following manner.——" It is but looking into your own thoughts, and so trying whether you can conceive it possible for a sound, or a figure, or a motion, or a colour (p), to exist without the mind, or unperceived. This easy trial may perhaps make you see that what you contend for is a downright

(p) D. B. hath perplexed himself about the fensible qualities of bodies; and insists much upon it as a demonstration of the non-existence of matter, because these qualities cannot exist without the mind. But he might have observed that heat, for instance, is an equivocal word; and may either stand for the fensation excited in the mind, or the quality in external bodies, raising that sensation. It is very trisling, because the first cannot exist without the mind, to inser that the last cannot; to conclude, that because fensation is not in the fire, there is no quality in it to raise sensation in a sensitive Being. Here figure and motion are nicely shuffled in with colour and sound; though they are qualities of a different kind.

contradiction. Infomuch that I am content to put the whole upon this iffue; if you can but conceive it possible for any one extended, moveable substance, or in general for any one idea, [here extended moveable substance, and idea, are supposed species and genus; in which case he is very safe] or any thing like an idea, to exist any " other ways, than in a mind perceiving it, " I shall readily give up the cause. And as " for all the compages of external bodies you contend for, I shall grant you its existence; " though you can neither give me any rea-" fon why you believe it exists, nor assign " any use for it, when it is supposed to ex-" ist. I say the bare possibility of your opinion's being true, shall pass for an argument that it is fo." This is very folemn! A man that is fo generous had need be wonderfully fecure of his conclusion.

XVII. But we take him at his word. Having shewn that his demonstration doth not conclude; and conceiving it very possible that the whole compages of external bodies may exist without the mind, and no ways in it;

the argument is at end with him(q). No man can ever be seriously persuaded, that this Author's scheme is true in fact, let him use the utmost violence possible to his reason. The thing itself is of such a nature, that it will not admit of belief: fo far is the contrary from being a downright contradiction, as he fays. And it is wonderful that he should be so peremptory in direct opposition to the fense of mankind. However we shall go on to shew, in consequence of what was said in N° 6. how possible matter is; and that there is all the evidence for the real existence of it, that the nature of things can admit of, unless we will require the contradiction there named to be proved. And first, if matter had not been possible at least, no man would ever have had any idea of it at all. To omit the reason of this before given, (N° 6.) let us confider that whatever part of an idea is not perceived, is no part of it; its effe is really

percipi.

⁽q) It is to no purpose to insist longer on any thing contained in his Book. It will all be found to be a repetition of this supposed demonstration. He carps very much in his Introduction at abstract ideas; but the usefulness and necessity of them is never a whit the less; a remarkable enough instance of which will appear immediately.

percipi. (See D. B.'s Principles, Sect. 132. as also his Opticks.) A part of a perception not perceived, is a contradiction indeed, being a part of it that is no part of it. Consequently a part less than the minimum sensibile (see again Sect. 127.) is no part of it, or nothing. Therefore in the idea of a folid inch of matter, v. g. there is no part that might be expressed by this number 1,000,000,000,000 in the denominator, having unit for its numerator, (or we may make the number greater, for those who have very good eyes) such a part being less than the minimum sensibile: or fuch a part is nothing at all. But if there be no fuch part; or if the million-millionth part is precifely nothing; the whole idea is made up of a million of million of no ideas: or the whole idea is no idea. For undoubtedly, a million or any number of nothings, will never make fomething: nor will any number of negations of an idea, ever make a real idea. Two, ten, a hundred, &c. negations of a thing, will never amount to the thing itself. Thus unless a real, solid, figured substance, were at least possible to exist without the mind, fuch a part of which would be a real part, of the same nature T 4 with

with the whole; our idea of the whole would be impossible, and no idea. This follows from afferting such a scheme, as makes it necessary to maintain, that whatever we perceive not of matter is not, which this Author doth very explicitly (r). A little abstraction of ideas, to which he is fuch an enemy, would have been of use to him here. The fame may be shewn concerning the ideas of motion, refistance, weight, &c. We do not perceive the refisfance of an atom; therefore we could not perceive that of a cannon-ball: for the last is but so many times the first. And if the first be nothing, so many times no perception will never make perception. Again, we have no fense of a motion extremely flow, or extremely fwift: therefore fuch motions are not. We have no perception of the motion of the index or hourhand of a clock: and yet this no perception, so many times repeated, becomes real per-

ception,

⁽r) Here we might ask a reason from the Abettors of this scheme, why our ideas do not reach the very intimate essence of other things, as well as body! Our ideas come not up to those in the Divine Mind, with respect to body, more than other things.

ception, with respect to the minute-hand (s).

XVIII. Again,

(s) We may draw it as a corollary from the argument in this paragraph, That our perceptions in general have no parts, or are indivisible; and particularly that our ideas or perceptions of divisible, extended substance, are themselves indivisible, without parts or extension. If they were not, then the million-millionth part of the perception of an inch long, would be fome part of it, or perceived by the terms. And from this again it will follow, that the percipient Being in us is not matter; because if our perceptions of length, breadth, figure, were in a material substance, they should necessarily have dimenfions. For fuch ideas of figures would be then affections, or modifications of matter; but all affections or modifications of matter, must be inherent in the matter whose modifications they are. And if the perception or idea of a figure, be an inherent modification, or affection of matter; it is clear it must inhere in all the matter percipient of it, and therefore have equal superficial dimensions at least. And, secondly, our perceptions of extension being without parts illustrates and confirms what was said in Sect. 3. viz. That the foul hath no parts, or is a simple, indivisible substance. We must fay, I think, that all the foul is percipient: if any part of it were impercipient that would not have the nature of foul (or of percipient Being.) And if all the foul be percipient, and yet its perceptions be without parts, we must say that it both no parts. If the soul were extended as matter is, certainly our perceptions would be extended.

XVIII. Again, folidity, figure, divisibility, &c. are either properties inhering in some

extended, or have parts; infinite divisibility of extension would not only be conceived by abstract reason, but the actual infinite little parts would be pictured down, if I may so express it; or they would be as much perceived, as any parts, and that by the terms being parts of the perception. And lastly, from this corollary I ask the following question; If the faculty of imagination requires a picture extended in length and breadth, but no idea or perception, as it is in the mind, is extended, Does not the power of imagination as much infer a material fenfory or organ, as a pure or fimple perception requires an unextended or immaterial percipient? In imagination, or in fensation of visible objects, the perception is not itself a picture; but undoubtedly it is the perception of a picture somewhere lodged. And if this be so; imagination, as it is the perception of a picture, shews not only that the foul is immaterial, but that it is united to a material sensory, where the picture is impressed, and to which it applies for the perception of it; or that matter exists. How far this argument is applicable to overturn D. B.'s scheme the Intelligent will determine; but Cartes himself, who, it may be prefumed, shewed D. B. the way of calling material substance in question, says-Nam attentius consideranti quidnam sit imaginatio, nibil aliud esse apparet quam quadam applicatio facultatis cognoscitivæ ad corpus ipsi intime præsens [the sensory] ac proinde existens. Meditat. 6.

substance;

substance; or substance itself (that thing, to wit, in which properties inhere, which we call, and must call substance:) if they are fubstance, folidity and figure will prove a folid, figured substance upon us. If they are only properties, they are either properties of our ideas, or not; if they are, then our ideas are substance, with respect to these properties or the thing in which they inhere; and therefore folid, figured fubstances. A thing that hath folidity, figure, &c. as properties belonging to it, or predicable concerning it, must be a folid, figured thing. But that our ideas should be such, as upon this scheme they must be, is monstrous. At least therefore, a substance must be possible, of which these are properties: for they are certainly properties of fomething. And if it be allowed that fuch properties exist now; or that the thing exists to which they belong; they will infer not only the possibility, but the actual existence of matter.

XIX. Again, all geometry is conversant about quantity. If there be nothing that can be called quantum in nature, or without the mind; nothing to which quantity is applicable:

cable; then we have a large body of fine demonstration, and men have discovered vast numbers of eternal and undeniable properties (as of a triangle, circle, cylinder, /phere) precifely of nothing; immutable truths converfant about an impossible object: which is strangely contradictory. It hath been always allowed that nothing can have no properties predicable of it, nor truths demonstrable concerning it. Our ideas are not quantity: to fay that would be to deny again the principal hypothefis maintained in this scheme of an utter want of extension in rerum natura. And if we allow extension, why not an extended substance? They are only ideas of quantity; and those truths are purely demonstrable of the objects of our ideas. No man ever spake of a circular thought; a spherical, or triangular perception: the fine or tangent of a sensation would be a new monster in science. Where will these abfurdities end? Nothing ever exposed men so much as this late species of Scepticism. It is a wonder it should find admirers; and among Mathematicians! For upon this scheme the object of their whole science is unphilosophically univerfal and abstract.

XX. Moreover, What a fine branch of knowledge have we concerning extended and refisting quantity, or body? The shock of bodies against each other, particularly of elaflic bodies; their perpendicular and inclined descents; their motion, circular, or in other curves; their centrifugal forces; their centers of gravity, oscillation or percussion? What fine and furprifing theorems, concerning bodies moving in, or supported by fluids? These truths have still nothing for their object. Our ideas are not beavy, refisting, projectile, fluid; capable of being compressed, or dilated; have no properties of inflexion, refraction, &c. To allow that our ideas had any of these properties, would be to allow them to be folid, refisting, figured, divisible things. And to say it is impossible there can be any substance of which these are properties; or to doubt only of this; is to doubt if feveral useful truths may not be found out, and demonstrations given, about nothing. Let me ask, what kind of philosophy would fuch propositions as these make; the centrifugal forces of two equal ideas, revolving in the same time,

in unequal ideas, are as their distances from the centers of these ideas? Or, the volumes of compressed ideas, are reciprocally as the weights of the superincumbent ideas? Or, the spaces run over by an idea, falling by its own gravity, are as the fquares of the times? This would still run more odly if dressed entirely in the language of this hypothesis, thus: The ideas of the spaces run over by an idea, falling by the idea of its own gravity, are as the ideas of the squares of the ideas of the times: for here all must be expressed by idea, their objects being impossible. These are shocking to the last degree. It is no wonder that the men who broach this scheme, should bear a grudge to Mathematicks. They are diametrically opposite to each other: and if there be any truth in that science, this must fall. Or rather we may ask universally, the particulars in N° 8. and 14. being also taken into confideration, what philosophy these men would retain; or what kind of knowledge would they leave to be purfued? Indeed what throws us into general and unbounded Scepticism, must strike at the roots of all science.

XXI. But it will be faid could not God Almighty have excited all these ideas in separate spirits, and made them capable to investtigate these properties of a folid, extended fubstance, which never actually existed? To this it is answered, that indeed these truths concerning a folid extended fubstance, were eternally in the Divine Intellect, before such substance existed: but then surely they were truths only, with regard to that fubstance itself, and not with respect to immaterial substance; unless we should say that the real properties of matter, were applicable to, and true concerning a substance not matter. Thus, even Infinite Power could not prompt us with these ideas in respect of any thing but what we believe to be the objects of them. not of our ideas themselves. Which, by the way, realizes our knowledge and philosophy about material things more than it is of late fashionable to follow (t.)

XXII. This

(t) I beg that the following axiom of Des Cartes may be confidered in this view, and it feems to me nothing needs be more evident. Axiom. 5. Unde etiam sequitur realitatem objectivam idearum nostrarum requirere causam, in quâ eadem ipsa realitas non tantum objectivé, sed formaliter

XXII. This being fo; the next question is, Whether God Almighty (a Being of infinite veracity) would have made it necessary for all those separate spirits (whom we call men) to purfue and attain a knowledge, less or more, or at least an experience, of the nature of a substance which no way existed, as fancying that a great part of their ease and comfort depended upon this; and have fo constituted them, that all of this species of Beings in the world, not excepting one; are verily perfuaded, that they are continually conversant with this substance, and that it enters into the composition: the question is, I fay, Whether this Being could have performed fuch a constant and universal piece of juggling (u)? If it could answer a good and wife

maliter vel eminenter contineatur. Notandamque hoc axioma tam necessariò esse admittendum, ut ab ipso uno omnium rerum tam sensibilium, quàm insensibilium cognitio dependeat.

(u) It is extremely abfurd to suppose that God 'Almighty should have given us so costly an apparatus of senses, as Anatomy discovers ours to be, especially of seeing and hearing; made us capable of investigating the nature and method of sensation; of seeing the contri-

wife end, that this substance should exist; why doth it not exist? If otherwise; why make us believe a thing exists, whose real existence could have answered no good and wife end? Can any supposition lay God under a neceffity of constantly deceiving his creatures? and his rational creatures too? Will not fuch a supposition contradict his reason and his truth? This will have all the force of a just

vance and wisdom, and the relation between the object and the faculty; and all defigned only to misguide and deceive us, as if these were to be the organs for communicating the action of external objects, when in truth there is no fuch thing. This in the language of the prefent scepticism is, That God excites in us (or rather leaves us to investigate) certain wonderful ideas [of eyes and ears] for the reception of other ideas, [men, houses, animals, &c.] which we are incapable of receiving by the ordinary manner, if these first ideas are any way disordered. And all the art and experience men have acquired, to procure themselves ease and relief from such disorders, is only at the bottom helping an idea that is distempered; a mere juggle (as I said) played upon us by the Author of our nature. Let me suppose that the Deity himself possessed us with a notion, that our bodies were made of China-ware or Glass, (vel caput habere fietile, vel totos esse cucurbitas, vel ex vitro constatos, as Cartis fays) and then ask, If that would be a greater imposture, than the prefent, on our Author's scheme?

Vol. II.

demon-

demonstration to sober men. Besides, since no man can be certain of the existence of other men, upon this scheme; and since it is faid that God excites in us all the ideas, which we fancy are excited by bodies; we must say that, when we think we are tempted by other men, to commit an unjust or immoral action, God immediately tempts us: and this, not only by exciting the ideas of the persuasives in the temptation (of the words and actions, to wit, which are nothing external;) but in formally contriving, and suggesting the obliquity of the sin we are tempted to; for, as hath been faid, taking away the existence of their bodies, there is no kind of evidence left for the existence of the fouls of men, who by the abuse of their freedom might tempt us. They who allow God to be a Deceiver as to the first, can make no scruple of supposing him to impose on us in the last. I might mention the influence of this new refinement on the lives and practices of men. Though the obliquity of actions rifes from the will; he who thinks theft, murder, or adultery, nothing real beyond bare idea, and that for ought he knows, he injures no body, will be furely under less restraint to satisfy

tisfy his inclinations of any kind. I might also mention the direct tendency of this improvement to Atheism. Men will hardly allow the exciting illusory ideas in our minds, of beauty and order, which no where really exist, fuch a proof of the power and wisdom of God, as an actually existing frame of material nature, where the grandeur, harmony, and proportion is permanent and real, existing from without, as well when we turn our thoughts from, as to it. And indeed it is not; for take away the existence of the material Universe, and all the surprising scene of Providence discovered above, Sect. II. Vol. I. where the God of nature by real power exerted, constantly preserves the world, and influences every particle and atom of this fubstance, by incessant various, wonderful impulse, ends in a dream and chimera. In that case no power could be exerted but to delude us. How could we believe the abilities of a Being, who was forced to have recourse to a deceit, to raise in us a notion of them? Or what opinion must we have of his wisdom and address, when we ourselves can detect the imposture? How much better is it as otherwise ordered! We cannot convince

God of a lie; nor shall we be able in an afterstate to fay, he deceived us in this. What a noble school is the frame of nature, where we see the Creator's mighty power put forth, in conftantly moving and regularly directing, the vast, unweildy bulks of dead matter; where all the works are real, nothing phantaffical! How would it grieve a rational mind to think that all this was performed in shew only; and our ignorance laid hold on to raife our amazement! Doth it not appear that the good and wife end defigned, and in fome measure attained by the real existence of the material world, is to train us rational Beings up to the knowledge of the perfections of the Deity, in a way adapted to our nature and capacities?

XXIII. Now to return to where we began. Matter is possible, as hath been shewn just before; but not necessary, as hath been also shewn: What kind of evidence, or demonstration then, would we have for the existence of such a substance, which we have not? In reason and philosophy, its existence should be known from the effects it produces, or the perceptions it excites in us, and the

perfections of that Being, who constituted it and our nature fuch, that it should act, and we perceive it acting. To expect we should know it without sensation, is to demand a proof of its existence, inconsistent with the very idea we have of it. To infift that its existence should be investigable by abstract notions, though we get our ideas originally from sense, by which matter must first enter, is to shew a great unskilfulness (v), or a fixed resolution to doubt; it is to suppose it a necessary, and not a contingent Being. Its existence hath no eternal necessary properties belonging to it; nor the existence of any thing fave the Deity. Therefore I conclude, that the knowledge of the existence of external material objects, by fense, is certain knowledge, and the evidence as great, as poffibility, and the nature of things can admit

(v) Mr. Ramfay observes well, La source du Pyrrhonisme vient de ce que l'on ne distingue pas entre une demonstration, une preuve, & une probabilite. Une denionstration suppose l'idee contradictoire impossible; une preuve de fait est, ou toutes les raisons portent à croire, sans qu'il y ait aucun pretexte de douter; une probabilité est, ou les raisons de croire, sont plus fortes, que celles de douter, Travels of Cyrus, Book 6. in the Dispute between Pythagoras and Anaximander.

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of; and therefore, as great as the reasonable soul (as such) can desire (x.)

XXIV. Before

(x) Mr. Locke fays, (Book 4. chap. 2. fect. 14) "So 66 that, I think, we may add to the two former forts of "knowledge, this also, of the existence of particular ex-" ternal objects, by that perception and consciousness we " have of the actual entrance of ideas from them; and " allow these three degrees of knowledge, viz. Intui-" tive, Demonstrative, and Sensitive; in each of which 66 there are different degrees and ways of evidence and " certainty." See also chap. xi. of the same Book. Mr. Ramsay in the place just now cited, says, —— Fe crois qu'il y a des corps, non sur le temoignage d'un seul, ni de plusieurs sens, mais sur le consentement unanime de tous les sens, dans tous les hommes, dans tous les temps, & dans tous les lieux. Or comme les idees universelles & immuables nous tiennent lieu de demonstrations dans les sciences, de meme l'uniformite continuelle, la liaison constante de nos sentiments, nous tiennent lieu de preuves, lorsqu'il · s'agit de faits. — After this let me observe, since this scheme denies the existence of matter, contrary to the testimony of sense; and since the Epicurean scheme allows of nothing but matter, from the testimony of sense, fetting the certainty of fense above that of reason, (see Lucr. lib. 1. ver. 420 & feq.) let me observe, I say, that it is not eafy to conceive, how these two should agree in this particular of the testimony of sense; though it is observed in the Cyclopædia, under the word [fallacy] they do. Lastly, (fays the Author) " Reason cannot shew

XXIV. Before we put an end to this Section, it will not be amiss, in consequence of what has been faid No 1. to take some farther notice of the ridiculous cause that hath raised all this doubting concerning the existence of the material world, and carried fome to deny directly the possibility of any fuch thing; viz. That we have no certain mark to know whether we are awake or afleep. This is what a man of plain, common sense would laugh at: only Philosophers think it enough to prove the world may be nothing rather than something. In an objection made to Des Cartes concerning his doubting, the Objector readily grants, There is no mark to know which of our fenfes mistaken, fince all reasoning depends on previous fensations; and the senses must first be true, " before any reasoning sounded thereon, be so. Thus " the Epicureans, whose system is strongly confirmed by " what we have already laid down from D. B. concern-"ing the external world." These two seem to me to agree in nothing unless in perverting all true philosophy Yet (fays the fame Author, under the word Abstraction) has a late eminent and ingenious Author D. B. contested the reality of any such ideas [viz. abstract] and gone a good way towards overturning the whole system, and confequently towards fetting our philosophy on a new footing.

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the states we are in, and only finds fault with Cartes for publishing, as a new method of doubting, that which Plato and others had broached long before him (y): which, by the way, is a strange fort of an objection. The inconfistency of this doubt, or this question, is plain, I think, in that no man has a right to make it, but he who hath experience of both the different states. If he has only been in one of them, he can know no difference, and therefore be in no doubt: and if he has been in both, and remembers a difference, he must know it; and therefore is obliged to answer himself, as having a confcious experience of the thing he defires to be informed in. Since fleep is a state in which the faculties of the foul are obstructed, or impeded, by the indisposition of the matter of the body, especially memory; fince this is fo, I fay, for a waking man to defire a mark or fign, whereby to know if he be awake, is as if he should defire another man to tell

him,

⁽y) Satis constat ex iis quæ dieta sunt in hac Meditatione [prima scil.] nullum esse xeslúgeov, quo somnia nostra q vigilia, & sensione verâ dignoscantur; ——veritatem hujus meditationis agnoscimus. Sed quoniam de câdem incertitudine sensibilium disputavit Plato, &c.

him, Whether he bath the powers of his foul at liberty or not? which he himself can know best. The foul hath not some powers to be impeded, and other powers of the same kindto remain still free; it should then have two consciousnesses; therefore it is improper toask, if a fleeping man can have a mark to know whether he fleeps? nor is it less improper for a waking man to ask a mark to know if he be awake. In the first case, there is a want of consciousness of the state we are in; and: in the fecond, a consciousness that we are not in the first state: what doubt can there then remain here? If the powers of the foul were not impeded in fleep, that state would not. differ from being awake, except in the indifposition of the body: but since it differs so widely otherwise, who can be excusable in pretending not to know the difference? At this rate, men might ask a fign to know, whether they are blind, or not, or how they can be certain that they are in their fober fenses rather than mad (z); and whether, when

⁽z) Pyrrho indeed, and the Sceptics, seem to deny a difference between these two— έδε γαρ οι μαινόμηνοι παρα φύσιν έχεσι. Τι γαρ μαλλον ένανοι η ήμες:

when they are conscious of a thing, they can be sure that they are conscious of it (a.) XXV. Thus

but to defend this, was, I think, to own themselves mad in effect.

(a) The argument in this paragraph, which is faid not to be intelligible enough, would perhaps become plainer, if we should ask the question. Whether it is a waking man, or a fleeping man, who proposes the doubt? And to this we may reasonably expect an answer, since the doubt supposes a Difference of the two states, and that this difference hath been observed; for otherwise the ground of doubting vanishes. It may, I think, be probably supposed that Plato, and Cartes were awake, when they proposed this nice and philosophical manner of doubting; and that they started it from some experience of the two different states, otherwise they would still have doubted without reason; and yet that very experience anfwers the doubt. The doubt could never be greater than the experience on which it was founded: If this experience is supposed nothing, the doubt becomes nothing at the fame time; and the greater the experience is fupposed to be, the doubt becomes the less; fince much experience of the difference could best teach them that difference. This, I presume, makes the argument intelligible; and shews the inconfistency of such doubting, if a man allows himself to be awake. And if he fays he dreams when he doubts thus, what he owns here also answers itself; when he awakes, he will find it but a dream. Besides, he owns the difference between dreamXXV. Thus much of the different state of the mind itself in these two conditions, of sleep-

ing and not dreaming, and the former argument will still be applicable.

But allowing the Scepticism to be pushed as far as may be. If one should fay, "I never dreamed in my life." (Since some of these men affirm this of themselves) what reason would he have for asking a neiliferor, whereby to diffinguish dreaming from not dreaming, when he owns he never dreamt in all his life? And if he should fav. "I had fuch a dream last night, and was verily perfuaded of the real existence of the things seen; and " why may not the things I fee and hear now be as 66 phantastical as these were?" I answer, first, he is incapable of being fatisfied; because on his own principles, he will still have equal reason to think any answer as phantastical as the person [or rather φάνλατμα, according to him] who gives him the answer: and therefore, as I said in the beginning of the Section, he should for ever hold his tongue, and doubt on in filence. When he defires fatisfaction, he supposes the reality of the thing he pretends to doubt of. This is always the fate of Scepticism. And, fecondly, when he fays, "He dreamed last night, &c." He owns he is awakened out of that dream now, otherwife he could not perceive that it was but a dream: Or else he must allow he is still dreaming on; and, as I said, whatever answer is made to him must still appear a dream. If he should fay, "I am not certain whether I ever dreamss ed

300 Dean Berkeley's scheme examined, fleeping and waking, which brings the τεκμήριον fought to self-consciousness. But the great

" ed in my life, or not." It is as if he should say, " I am " not certain, that ever I was in a different state of con-" sciousness from what I am in at present." And then why should he demand a nessigner or mark to know which of the two states he is in, who never observed any difference? He can have no doubt of the reality of external objects, who was never imposed on, by being made to think phantastical objects real. And how could any answer give satisfaction to such a man? If he thinks all things real, he will need no fatisfaction; and if he thinks them phantastical, the answer must appear to be such, as much as all other things. In a word, he hath either perceived a difference, of the state of consciousness he hath been in; or he hath not: if he hath not, he can have no doubt; and if he hath observed a difference, he should confider that difference, and is obliged to answer himself, as having a conscious experience of the thing he desires to be informed of. For it is mere humour, and in effect abfurdity, for a man to fay, "Inform me of a particular, " of which I have experience in my own consciousness " from your experience of it in yours;" fince felf-consciousness of what passes in one's own mind, is the last appeal in all controversy.

From all this, it appears still more plain, I think, that Scepticism, in any shape that may be given it, is inconsistent with itself, in supposing the thing concerning which it pretends to doubt; and therefore it defeats its own de-

great difficulty pretended, is, How can we be fure that any thing exists? All from N° 1 to 24. is an answer to this; to which let me add, that if we never dreamed in fleep, we should not at all doubt of the existence of the frame of nature. But have we less evidence now, than if all were a blank then? Or can the existence of the world depend upon the indisposition of our bodies, or the different state of consciousness of our minds? Suppose a whole nation of men should never dream, (fee N° 33. Note (c) of the last) and another nation never fleep, while we both fleep and have visions in our sleep; can the standing or falling of the fabrick of the universe depend upon this diversity? We see the heavens represented in a pool of standing water, and images reflected from a mirrour: is that bea-

fign every way. Whence it must appear a very extraordinary attempt to endeavour to raise doubts, in spite of the absurdities that attend doubting, and to render truth suspected without any ground. Though I were able to perplex plain and well-meaning men, by this fubtile kind of doubting; I must be conscious to myself of a disingenuity and perverseness in the undertaking; unless I alfo shewed them a way how to get free of such puzzling Sophistry.

ven, or the objects of these images less real, because the stars are made appear below the ground; or men, trees, houses, represented as hanging above us? What if some idle Philosopher had made this a handle to become a learned Doubter? Though perhaps we might have had another Denomination of Sceptics from this man; that would not however have made the existence of heaven and earth less certain. This may be thought a strange supposition; and yet the Sceptics pretended to doubt of the existence of material objects on this very account; viz. from the different appearances they made by mirrours. — κ ή αὐτή δὲ μορΦή παρά τὰς διαφοράς τῶν καβόπβρων ἀλλοῖα Θεωρεϊται ακολεθεί οὖν μη μᾶλλον εἶναι τοῖον το Φαινόμενον, ή άλλοῖον. Diog. Laert. Pyrrho. And as this very phænomenon of exhibiting the appearances of things by the pool, or the glass, supposes and proceeds from the reality of external objects existing: so even our dreams, though they have no external real objects, yet suppose such, and are exhibited in imitation of them; and upon this account deceive us. Therefore rightly confidered, they bring no argument against

against the real existence of material things, but rather one for it. Thus Cartes himself fays (though against his own purpose) in the same place where he proposes his universal doubting, --- Tamen profectò fatendum est visa per quietem esse veluti pictas quasdam imagines, quæ non nisi ad similitudinem rerum verarum fingi potuerunt-This is remarkable in itself; but still more so as said by him and on fuch an occasion too. He continues -Ideoque saltem generalia hæc, oculos, caput, manus, totumque corpus res quasdam non. imaginarias, sed veras existere: nam sane pictores ipfi, ne tum quidem cum sirenas & satiriscos maxime inusitatis formis singere student, naturas omni ex parte novas iis possunt assignare sed tantummodo diversorum animalium membra permiscent; vel forte-In our dreams we have representations of some things that cannot be imaginary, as figure, magnitude, number; and of some that are necessary, as time, place: every vision must have duration, and a scene of existence. So Cartes in the same place—cujus generis esse videntur natura corporea in communi, ejusque extensio; item figura rerum extensarum, item quantitas, sive earundem magnitudo.

tudo, & numerus: item locus in quo exiftant, tempusque per quod durent——(Meditatio 1.) From this the Intelligent will
fee that dreams are but superficially considered, when they are made a pretence for
doubting; and that Cartes himself cuts off
the chief pretence he had for calling in
question his former knowledge; though with
the design of becoming more certain, and
placing it on a surer foundation than it formerly was.

XXVI. Let me here observe to young people who have not perhaps considered it before, that this great Man was not able with his utmost effort seriously to doubt of every thing. Having alledged all the reasons for doubting in his first Meditation, that he could think of; he is forced at length to come to this, That if be could not doubt on other terms, be would designedly deceive himself by doubting. His words are, Quapropter, ut opinor, non male agam, si voluntate plane in contrarium versa, meipsum fallam illasque omnino falsas imaginariasque singam, donec tandem velut aquatis utrimque prajudiciorum ponderibus, nulla amplius prava consuetudo judicium me-

um a recta rerum perceptione detorqueat. As if he had faid, "If I cannot doubt with my eyes open, let me shut them: if I cannot believe things false, let me sup-" pose them false against my belief." Is it not plain here, he only faid he doubted, without being able to do fo? Those things could not be called prejudices, with which he was forced to take this method. A man should not doubt where he is forced to feign causes of doubting (b). And in the Synophis of his Meditations, he fays, (speaking of the external world the bodies of men, and other things of that nature) De quibus nemo unquam sanæ mentis serio dubitavit. The other great reason he affigns for universal doubting, is the very worst, I think, that could be given; the supposition, to wit, that God may be malicious and a deceiver. Quid autem nunc ubi suppono deceptorem aliquem potentissimum, &, si fas est ita dicere, malignum, data opera.

⁽b) If any one doubts that he may become more certain, and is forced to feign causes (nay to deceive himself) that he may doubt; I ask if he can become more certain, by this method than he was before? Or if being reduced to the necessity of such a method before he can doubt, be not itself the greatest mark of certainty.

in omnibus quantum potuit, me delufisse-May we not here fay, that this is a costly way of doubting, which forces Des Cartes to make an almighty devil of the Deity before he can make his doubting feafible? They who have the lamest notions of the Deity, conceive him as fomething perfect: he fays elsewhere, Ex quibus satis patet illum [Deum] fallacem esse non posse: omnem enim fraudem, & deceptionem, à defectu aliquo pendere, lumine naturali manifestum est. If this is plain from the light of nature, especially to fuch men as Cartes, and I believe no body will deny it; was it philosophical in him to suppose God a deceiver, merely that he might doubt of truths, which otherwise forced his affent? Pray observe whether I do him injustice. He says, Nam sive vigilem, sive dormiam, duo & tria simul juncta sunt quinque, quadratumque non plura babet latera quam quatuor; nec fieri posse videtur ut tam perspicuæ veritatis in suspicionem falsitatis incurrant: and yet in the very next fentence the reason why he doubts of these self-evident truths, is no better than bécause God may be a deceiver. Is it not mighty inconfistent to suppose an evidently false

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false thing true, that he may be at liberty to suppose evidently true things false? But leaving this, I shall only observe, that the manner in which he ends his meditations is very remarkable——Sed hyperbolica superiorum dierum dubitationes, ut risu dignæ sunt explodendæ, præsertim summa illa de somno, quem à vigilià non distinguebam; nunc enim adverto permagnum inter utrumque effe discrimen-By speaking thus [nunc enim adverto] Des Cartes would have it thought, that he had got a new light from this manner of univerfal doubting: though one must be at a loss to conceive whence the light could come. Could he not perceive the difference between dreaming and not dreaming, till he had first called in question the truth of self-evident propositions? Must every individual man follow this method, before he can tell whether he be awake, or afleep? Or can the forcing ourselves to suppose God an Almighty Deceiver, be the only way to discover that he is a Being of infinite veracity! Whatever vertue such a method of doubting may have, to open a Philosopher's eyes; I am fure it will never open any body's else. The only thing I can find worth X 2

208 Dean Berkeley's scheme examined, our imitation through the whole method, is the exploding this hyperbolical doubting, as deserving our laughter; though it was inconsistent in him to speak thus of it, if it had served him for such great purposes (c.)

(c) I shall here take notice of some exceptions made to the reasoning in some of the preceding paragraphs, and endeavour to remove them. It is observed, that D. B.'s scheme takes away the existence of other minds, and perhaps of our own, and of all forts of fubstrata, as they are called; and therefore that most of what I have faid feems right. But then it is added, "It is true, one " Sovereign Mind may be sufficient to produce all these " ideas; and many Philosophers affirm, that He actual-1 ly produces them in us, though they allow the objects " to exist. The question is, Whether he produces them according to a certain order, and certain laws esta-66 blished by himself; or whether he produces them a-" greeably to the real state of a certain third object, which we call the fenfory. D. B. will fay, that the " order and laws which rule their connexions and apopearances in our minds, are in every respect the same 66 to us, as the real existence of the material Universe. 66 From this order, he will answer your query, How he can communicate his thoughts to others, on which " you feem to lay much stress? And this order will " ferve him to answer your queries about the beauty of are, and of natural philosophy.-If he had contented himself with denying the actual existence of matter, he would have avoided many abfurdities."

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In

In answer to this, I own, first, I do not see that D. B.'s reasoning takes away the existence of our own minds, or invalidates Des Cartes's principle, Cogito ergo fum. Those Philosophers, who allow the objects of our ideas to exist, affirm, I think, without necessity, That the Sovereign Mind produces the ideas of them in us; in fo far I mean, as the objects themselves may do this; or otherwise than by co-operation. Matter, I know, cannot act of itself; or it acts only by refistance; but if the refistance between the matter of our bodies and other matter, be enough to excite the idea of that refistance in our minds, it would be unnecessary to suppose God to excite the idea, and the refistance itself to have no effect. And if we do not allow that the matter of our bodies affects our minds directly, and by itself; the union between them will feem in a great measure to no purpose. The reason, I believe, why those Philosophers affirmed that God excited the ideas of matter, and material action in our minds, was, because we cannot formally conceive the manner how matter affects spirit, or how spirit acts on matter; but we are certain this is matter of fact in many instances, whether we conceive it or not. The Deity himself moves matter, in almost all the phænomena of nature; and the foul of man perhaps moves fome matter of the body. though in an infinitely less degree.

And as to the manner in which our ideas are produced; though they are produced agreeably to the real state of a certain third object, which we call the sensory, they are nevertheless produced according to a certain order and laws established by this Sovereign Mind; the one of these doth not exclude the other. To allow this third

object, the Sensory namely, is all that is defired. To allow this, and contest the existence of material objects would be inconsistent.

D. B. cannot answer my first Query concerning communicating his thoughts to others. For if any Being excites the ideas of other men's bodies in us; if, as he maintains, it is impossible and contradictory there should be any fuch bodies; and if it be from these delusory ideas which this Being excites in us, that we infer the existence of other men's minds: how can he be certain of the exiftence of their minds, which he collects from false appearances? 'Tis he himself who has made the foundation of all a cheat and impossure. But supposing the same Being excited in us directly the ideas of other men's minds: how could we have a greater certainty in the one cafe than in the other? The veracity of this Being becomes now suspected. And why should we trust him again after a former illusion? Cartes only supposed, but this Auther endeavours to prove him a Deceiver. He should by all means have given a Demonstration of the existence of men's minds, when he afferts the existence of their hodies impossible, by which only we inferred the existence of their minds. And if the argument which I have taken notice of in No 9, be good; he can offer no proof for the existence of their minds, which will not equally prove the existence of their bodies. So difficult is it, I conceive, to answer this Query. Besides, how can it be faid that D. B. may answer this Query; and yet at the fame time be owned, that his reasoning takes away the existence of other minds, nay and perhaps of our own too?

and shewn inconclusive. 311

Nor do I think he can answer the other Queries concerning the beauty and order of the Universe. Can a thing impossible and contradictory have any beauty, or order, or, in general, any property? I have shewn in No 21. that even Infinite Power could not prompt us with the ideas of this beauty, order, or properties, any farther than as they relate to these very objects, which are controverted. And if these objects be impossible to exist, it is farther evident, that the Infinite Mind itself could have no ideas of them; for an impossible thing there can be no conception. We must necessarily therefore, in explaining the phanomena of nature, suppose the existence of the objects of our ideas; fince these phanomena are true only of the objects of our ideas, not of our ideas themselves. What I mean is, though we conceive the beauty, order and proportion in the Universe by our ideas, we do not conceive these to be beauty, order, or proportion exhibited in our ideas, but in the things we suppose the objects of them. I have shewn in a place or two above, what ridiculous philosophy it would make, to substitute our ideas instead of the objects of them. Therefore, I think, D. B. could have no reason to say, That the order and laws which rule the connexions of our ideas, and appearances in our minds, are in every respect the same to us as the real existence of the material Universe. This, I conceive, is a great mistake; and the generality of men allow too hastily, that it is confistent enough with philosophy to suppose nothing but ideas, instead of the objects of ideas; and that demonstrations may be given, and the phanomena explained, as well upon the one supposition as the other. This is that which hath

made D. B.'s scheme appear so impregnable, and in effect not altogether absurd; whereas in truth, no one appearance in nature can be explained, nor any one proposition in abstract geometry demonstrated without supposing the objects of our ideas, instead of our ideas themselves.

As this is the main difficulty, I shall endeavour to make it plain by an inftance or two. It hath been shewn in No 17. that our ideas, as they are in the mind, have no parts nor magnitude; and our Author's scheme supposes, or rather afferts this. A want of extension in rerum natura is the great principle. Let us then take this proposition, In a right angled triangle, the square of the hypotenuse is bigger than either of the squares of the other sides (as being really equal to them both.) Now this proposition is directly false, if you substitute the idea of this square instead of the square itself, which is the object of the idea; for this idea hath no parts nor magnitude whereby to exceed the other ideas; and it is abfurd to fay it is either greater or less than another idea, or equal to two or more, or to institute any proportion between them; for all fuch proportion is in respect of dimensions or magnitude, which can never be applicable to ideas, either in reality, or on the Author's Scheme. And the argument is the same in respect of all lines, surfaces, solids, angles; every thing about which geometry is converfant. And as to thile sophy, I need not give an instance in it, after what hath been faid in No 20. If we apply this proposition The spaces run over by a body, falling by its own gravity; are as the squares of the times] to our ideas, instead of their objects, it is downright nonsense and contradiction. In fhort, it is as triffing and fophistical, because all demonftration

firation is in ideas, to fay it is conversant about no object but ideas; as it would be to say, because all demonstration must be pronounced in words, or written on paper, it can relate to nothing but the words it is pronounced in, or the paper it is written upon. Omitting therefore other instances, I shall give one, which seems to prove directly the existence of objects without the mind, and that from the perceptions of the mind itself.

If our ideas have no parts, and yet if we perceive parts; it is plain we perceive something more than our own perceptions. But both these are certain; we are confcious that we perceive parts, when we look upon a house, a tree, a river, the dial-plate of a clock or watch. This is a fhort and eafy way of being certain that fomething exists without the mind. We are certain of this from consciousness itself; fince we are as conscious that we perceive parts, as that we have perceptions at all. And this argument proves at once, and from the same perceptions, the existence of both the parts of our composition; (see the Note (s) No 27. above) and therefore makes the existence of both equally certain. Our ideas as they are in the mind, are without parts; and as they make us conscious of perceiving parts, we are conscious that an extended object exists without the mind, where the extended image is exhibited, viz. an extended fenfory. Our very fensations, and the faculty of imagination, as much prove the existence of this sensory, as they prove the existence of the sensitive Being; and this whether it be in a dream, fever, or any way a Sceptic pleases to suppose, provided only parts be perceived. The wildest chimeras in fleep prove the certainty of the thing they were brought

to render suspected. If these sensories were not, there would be no such illusions: and if some other cause than matter, did not make these impressions, there would be still no such illusions. Our sleeping sensations infer the existence of one cause more, than our waking sensations show us.

I am perfuaded, if Des Cartes had observed this property of our ideas as they are in the mind, viz. that they are without parts or extension, (and the definition he gives of an idea which I have quoted above, leads him directly to it) he would have owned that the same perception of parts proved to us the existence of both substances. He does indeed in some places point full at this truth. Præterea (fays he) ex imaginandi facultate, quâ me uti experior, dum circa res materiales versor, sequi videtur illas existere. He saw here there was no other way of accounting for the faculty of imagination, but by the existence of a material sensory. It were to be wifhed, he had gone a little farther. But he comes fill nearer below. - Ad hæc considero istam vim imaginandi quæ in me est, prout differt a vi intelligendi, ad mei ipsius, boc est, ad mentis meæ essentiam, non requiri; nam, &c. Meditat. 6. How near is this to proving the existence of both substances from the same perception of parts or extended images!

One who confiders this argument, can make no objection to it from the *images* formed by *specula*. For these are extended, and prove what I advance, as much as any appearance. In this instance, magnifying the image, i. e. enlarging the extension of it, is the great end proposed, and every one knows that such images

are formed by rays of light, which are corporeal things. Neither can there be any objection from the power of an omnipotent Being, who may exhibit extended, figured images, without any extended, figured subject, in which they may inhere. To bring in Omnipotence to help out an objection, by performing a contradiction, such as to make properties exist by themselves without a subject, is ridiculous to the last degree.

Others will determine how far this realizes our knowledge concerning matter and material objects, Mr. Locke speaks of fensitive knowledge with much fairness and candor, giving it the third place, or making the degrees of our knowledge to be intuitive, demonstrative, and sensitive; (see Note (x) No.23.) but with much submisfion, the existence of matter in general, or at least of material fenfories to which the foul is united, feems to me, from what has been faid, to be nearer intuitive than demonstrative knowledge, if the same perception of parts proves to us both the spirit and a material sensory. Be it as it will there is but one step in the Demonstration, viz. to flew that perceptions, as in the mind, have no parts. But D. B. confounds perception as in the mind itself. with the image perceived in the fenfory; and thus endeavours to make our own perceptions of no use to us in shewing us the existence of matter. We had the conviction in our own consciousness and perception; but he made us believe we had it not; and then we were at a loss to find it any where clfe. A certain great Author feems to follow the fame tract. But thought (fays he) we own pre-" eminent, and confess the reallest of Beings, the only ex-" iftence of which we are made fure by being conscious.

"It felse may be only dream and shadow. All which even fense suggests may be deceitful; the sense itself remains fill; reason subsists; and thought maintains its eldership of Being, &c." This is carrying things too far. From what has been said just above it appears, that we are fure of the existence of matter by being conscious, or having perceptions of some kind; that as long as sense or sensations remain, this is certain; and that our very dreams shew that all else is not a dream. This Author elsewhere makes matter as necessary as thought itself; and here he says, all that sense suggests may be but a dream. It is hard to reconcile this. If matter be as necessary as thought, and yet but a dream, nothing at all will be left real.

From what is here faid it will follow, that separate Spirits have a superior power or faculty of conceiving extended substance, and not our formal manner of imagination; but this, I think, is as it should be; agreeable to reason and philosophy. We are under a necessity, as hath been faid before, of applying to impressions on the sensory; being by our union kept at a diftance from the objects of fensation: in such a state the sensory must be a necessary artifice to supply that defect. Hence our present ima_ gination and reminiscence, are but a kind of vicarious faculties, in which separate Spirits must exceed us. These inferior helps feem in them to be swallowed up in intellect, or the best way of conceiving. That wonderful appearance taken notice of in the end of the last Section, makes this in some measure conceivable. That there is a fuperior way in this case is certain. The Deity is not confined to our narrow faculty of imagination; every thing is intellect in him. It may be fo in a lower degree in

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created

created separate spirits. All this is more intelligible and reasonable than to run into the contradiction of afferting that living Beings can know, or perceive nothing, when not confined to dead matter. But to return.

As to what is said, that if D. B. had contented himfelf with denying the actual existence of matter, he had avoided many absurdities; I must observe that this is a common mistake, and too readily allowed by us. It should be considered, that if he had granted the existence of matter a possibility, he could not have had one argument for denying it to exist actually. Why deny a thing which is allowed possible enough to be, and which hath all the reasons that the nature of things can admit of, to shew that it actually is? To have written Books then against the actual existence of the Universe, would have appeared, if possible, a more extraordinary attempt, than the present. Let any one, to satisfy himself, try if he can find out a reason, on this supposition-" is very possible the world may exist, yet it is certain " that it doth not really exist, because ---." Or thus: "There is no impossibility in supposing myself to have " hands, feet, and a body; and yet nothing is more true "than that I have neither hands, feet, eyes, nor ears, for "It is not conceivable what plaufible reason a man could affign to fill up these arguments. But let us fuppose that one should recur to the great topick and pretence for doubting, viz. our dreams, and fay, "I find " that I am often imposed upon and deceived in dreams; "therefore, &c." I reply; "Those things which you "dream of, and fee in your fleep, really exist; and it is 66 very possible for the same individual Being to become

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a man, a brute animal, a monster, &c. successively, as o you see it represented. How can you disprove this apor parent existence; or shew it not to be real, and that vou are imposed upon in sleep? -- By the testimony of your senses perhaps; fince you neither hear nor see "these things when you awake? -- I answer, This is ridiculous in you: you are inconfistent with your-" felf; you make opposite reasons conclude the same "thing; you have quite thrown aside the testimony of " your fenses, when you conclude against that testimoer ny, that the material world doth not really exist. If see fense can prove any thing, your whole scheme is an " abfurdity." Thus these men cannot prove a dream to be a dream on their own principles: The reason is, they fuppose all a dream antecedent to any proof, and make use of that supposition as a proof; as was argued in the beginning of the Section. This comes from casting off the testimony of sense. There is no laying aside the methods of certainty which God hath appointed, and finding any confistent succedaneum in the place of them. We stumble from one absurdity to another, till at length we are lost amidst the inextricable mazes of error and contradiction. And from all this it appears, that to allow the existence of the material world possible, and yet deny its actual existence, is at least as difficult as the method D. B. has taken to deny it; he had not another possible method to answer his purpose, but to pretend it could not exist.

Some other objections have been made, but not urged with that candor, strength and accuracy as the former; however, I shall mention them. One is, "That the "existence of material objects may be called in question,

66 from the different appearances they make, when 66 placed at different distances from the eye; for why " should they have one magnitude, or figure, rather "than another." This, which our Author and his Followers infift much on, is taken from Pyrrho, and his Disciples --- Καλά τέτοι τ τρόπον τα δοκένλα είνας μεγάλα, μικεά φαίνείαι τὰ τειράιονα, τρογίθλα τὰ όμαλα, έξοχας έχονλα τα όρθα, κεκλασμένα. It is against the first Elements of Geometry, that any object, this Book for instance, should subtend the same angle by rays proceeding from it to the eye, at all the various distances at which it may be placed. Thus upon the supposition that objects really exist, there is a demonstrable necessity that they should appear of different magnitudes and figures, placed at different distances from the beholder. Hence it seems very unskilful to make fuch an appearance an objection against the real existence of extended objects, which must necessarily obtain, suppofing them to exist. If such an objection prove any thing, it proves extended objects impossible, because another impossibility cannot become fact; viz. That the same line should always subtend the same angle, by lines drawn from it to any point.

It is faid, "I have pretended to ridicule this fcheme, "by endeavouring to put fome propositions, according " to it, in ridiculous language." This I directly deny. The language into which I have put these propositions, is very proper according to this scheme. This was defigned as an argument against the scheme, not as ridicule; and I still think it is one. When it is said in the objection, "That an object (this Book, v. g.) placed 66 within

3 20 D. Berkeley's scheme examin'd,&c.

within a foot of the eye, appears of one magnitude; 44 and removed to the distance of ten feet from it, appears " to be of another; and at the distance of a hundred " yards, still of another, &c." I affert that this is no language for this scheme; or it is captious and sophistical language. It should be "The idea of a Book, placed within the idea of a foot of the idea of the eye, &c." To express this in common language, and yet suppose the expression proper, is first to suppose the Book placed, and really existing; and then to infer from this supposition that it is only an idea. To apply common language to a quite contrary fense, and then to suppose this arbitrary application an argument to overturn common fense, or to contend for the propriety of fuch application, is as inconfiftent as any thing in the scheme. It is plain figure, distance, magnitude, motion, are no language on this hypothesis. These are supposed real in the language, and it is thence concluded there are no fuch things. This is an open fallacy. It is certain, arguments for a true hypothesis, may be expressed in words agreeable to that hypothesis; and not in fuch a language as contradicts and supposes it falle. And fince it is impossible for any man living, to do this on our Author's principles; this itself is an invincible argument against them. Common language is adapted to the objects of our ideas, and these principles, to the ideas of objects: this must occasion a constant opposition between any language and these principles, and shews that they contradict common language, as much as common fenfe.

SECT. III.

That matter is not eternal and uncaused, nor the eternal effect of an eternal cause.

I. Thath been shewn in the first and second fections of Vol. I. what kind of a fubstance matter is: it appears to be a stuggish, inactive, lump; not only not endued, but utterly incapable of being endued with any active power. The nature of it confifts in being folidly extended, or so extended as to refift. Hence resistance is fundamental in its nature: and hence again arises an impossibility of its effecting what it refifts, viz. any change of its present state. If we should conceive it once placed in any part of the immenfity of space, (though we could not even conceive it placed at first in that part rather than another, without some external cause to determine this particular location;) if, I fay, we should conceive it once thus placed, we must after that conceive it to remain in that place to all eternity; to continue in that shape or figure, and with the same relative situation of its parts; without any possibility of change or variation; unless we allow of an immate-VOL. II. rial

rial Cause, which could effect a change in fuch a dead substance. And in consequence of this it appeared that an universal, indesinent, various impulse from an immaterial Cause, was necessary to be impressed upon it, to effect all those changes it undergoes, and to produce all those regular and beautiful vicissitudes which we behold in nature; and that the incessant and universal influence of this Cause is that which constantly supports the material world. It was moreover shewn that this inert substance cannot resist but in proportion to its quantity. And fince the least parts make the greatest resistance, that they may not be put out of their relative fituation among themselves; this itself appeared to be the power of this immaterial Cause, indefinently impressed upon, and exerted in every possible part of matter. And fince without this, these least parts could not cohere at all, or make a folid, refisting substance (a); it appears that the power of this Cause thus incessantly put forth through all its possible parts, is that which constitutes the folidity and resistance of matter. And hence again

⁽a) Let what hath been faid concerning the cohesion of matter, from N° 7. to N 12. Sect. 2. be here remembered.

it follows that, as the power of this Cause constantly exerted, constitutes the nature and folidity of matter now; fo it could not have been a folid refifting substance at first, or for any the least time, without the power of this Cause thus exerted. And thus the great question concerning the rife and origin of matter, feems to be naturally and eafily determined, from what has been already shewn in these two sections. For from this it appears to be a thing caused, at whatever time it may have been brought into existence: and nothing can be more against reason than to suppose, that such a dead, inactive, substance (a substance, which wants the power of a foreign Cause to be indefinently put forth upon it, that it may be, what it is) should nevertheless be a thing uncaused and independent. Without this foreign influence to effect cohefion and folidity in it, we could not conceive it at all to be a substance. Let us go as far as we can in the sub-division of parts, as long as we allow these parts to be folid and extended, we must allow them to be solid and extended by this external power exerted: and if they are not folid and extended parts, they cannot be parts of solid and extended substance.

Y 2

This carries the point beyond the reach of objection; for to fay, There might have been fome incomplete subject, or substratum, eternal and felf-existent which the power of this Cause (by being exerted in it) constituted into a folid, refifting substance, would be to speak not only unintelligibly but abfurdly. What could this incomplete, felf-existent thing be? It could not be matter, or folid and refisting substance; but some unsubstantial piantom of matter. And I demand a reason from the Patrons of eternal and uncaused matter, why an incomplete unfubstantial phantom of matter should be eternal and uncaused; fince the fubstance in its complete nature could only be a dependent effect (b)? Can a balf-finished.

(b) All this would be the counter-part to Aristotle's figment of substantial forms. The phantom of substance, (which is the same as unsubstantial substance) and substantial forms, seem to tally in making up something like real substance between them, if we could conceive either of them to subsist without the other; but they must either be both substances, or both shadows. And in the terms to which the controversy is here reduced, the Deity contributed the one part in finishing the substance, [the solid and resisting nature of matter] which seems the only substantial part: and the other [the unsubstantial]

ed, imperfect thing have a better claim to felf-existence, than that whose nature is full and complete? Here the latter of these hath been manisestly proved to be an effect: after which it would be absurd to the last degree, to pretend the former may be independent and eternal. This would be contending, without knowing what was contended for: and it is so far from being true, that we cannot conceive the creation of matter out of nothing possible, as is pretended, that it is even impossible to conceive it self-existent and uncreated (c). It must have been created

fubstantial phantom] is as eternal and necessary as he himself! I should think men should be ashamed to stand by this. If we call to mind Aristotle's definition of his materia prima, we shall find it exactly to agree to that which must be here supposed necessary and self-existent. It is, Nec quid, nec quale, nec quantum, nec quidquam eorum quibus determinatur ens. This is empty sound; but it is fit enough to describe an empty phantom, of which no man ever had, nor ever will have any notion. And yet this is that which the Stagirite makes eternal and necessary; which, if it had not been self-existent, no power of any Being could ever have supplied!

(c) "You tell us (fays Dr. Clarke, in his dispute with "M. C. p. 245.) if we have not an idea of the creation of matter out of nothing, we must inevitably conclude

(and out of nothing too: not certainly out of a half-finished phantom of a substratum) when the power of this immaterial Cause

was

matter a felf-existent Being. I answer, by the same " argument, it follows on the contrary, that if we have " not an idea of the felf-existence of matter, [that is, " that every distinct particle of matter in the Universe, is a necessary, independent, self-existent Being, we must " inevitably conclude matter to be a created Being. And "by a better argument, it follows, if we have an idea of the possibility of the non-existence of matter; that is, if we have an idea that Space can (without a contra-"diction) exist without matter in it; we must inevitably conclude matter not to be necessarily-existing, but a " created Being." To this I beg leave to add, that the unnecessariness both of matter itself, and the idea of it, can no way better appear, than if we compare these two, Space and Matter, together. The one hath all the genuine marks of necessity; it forces itself upon us; it will neither be increased nor lessened in our thoughts; and we cannot suppose it out of nature, but by a contradiction. It is quite otherwise with matter; we may suppose more or less of it to exist, or even that once none at all existed without any violence offered to our ideas. When we dispute Space out of existence, we endeavour to obscure one of the clearest ideas we have of necessary existence; but after the heat of the argument is over, I am apt to think every man finds in his own breast that this is impossible to be effected,

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Matter not eternal and uncaused. 327 was first exerted, to make it a solid resisting substance.

II. This

With respect to the impossibility of creating matter, a certain great Author feems very positive. I shall here give his argument, and endeavour to answer it. He says, speaking to the other Person in the Dialogue. -- " In " the first place, give me leave to wonder that, instead of the many arguments commonly brought for the " proof of a Deity, you make use only of one single one to build on. I expected to have heard from you, in customary form, of a first Cause; a first Being, and a beginning of motion: how clear the idea was of im-"material substance; and how plainly it appeared, that fome time or other matter must have been created. 66 But as to all this you are filent." [Thus our Author, I think, endeavours to get quit of this kind of reasoning, with a pretended contempt, instead of argument.] " As " for what is faid of a material unthinking Substance being neverable to have produced an immaterial thinking one; I readily grant it: but on the condition that " this great maxim of nothing being ever made from nothing, may hold as well on my side as my Adversary's; and then, I suppose, that whilft the world endures, he will be at a loss how to assign a beginning to matter, or " how to fuggest the possibility of annihilating it. The of spiritual men may, as long as they please, represent to is, in the most eloquent manner, that matter consi-66 dered in a thousand different shapes, joined and disic joined, varied and modified to eternity, can never of 66 itself. Y 4

II. This might fuffice; but this old controverfy is still varied into new and different forms;

" itself, afford one fingle thought, never occasion or " give rife to any thing like fenfe and knowledge. Their " argument will hold good against a Democritus, an Eof picurus, or any of the elder or latter Atomists. But it " will be turned on them by an examining Academist; " and when the two substances are fairly set asunder, " and considered apart, as different kinds; 'twill be is as strong sense, and as good argument, to say as well of the immaterial kind, That do with it as you please, " modify it a thousand ways, purify it, exalt it, sub-" lime it, torture it ever fo much, or rack it, as they " fay, with thinking; you will never be able to force " the contrary substance out of it. The poor dregs of for-" ry matter can no more be made out of the simple, of pure substance of immaterial thought, than the high " spirits of thought or reason, can be extracted from " the gross substance of heavy matter. So let the Dogma-" tifts make of this argument what they can."

This is a bullying defiance, and the argument is treated in a very metaphorical manner. But passing by other things, the Academist grants here, both material and immaterial substance to exist, or a substance which is folid and resisting, and a substance thinking and intelligent, as distinguished, and (it seems) equally eternal. And he will be forced to own that if there be an intelligent Being any way perfect, there must be an infinitely perfect.

forms; the idea of eternal and uncaused matter is pretended to be the only confistent idea we

perfect intelligent Being: for whatever Being is necessary, cannot be necessarily limited and imperfect And if there is an infinitely perfect Being, he must be infinitely powerful and knowing, or what we call God. Now the argument comes to this, I prefume, That, if matter could not create God, or if this on the one hand is certain, it is no less certain on the other, That God could not create matter: Or, if a powerless, dead lump could not create an infinitely powerful, living Being; no more could an infinitely powerful living Being create a powerless dead substance. The examining Academist may shew the parity of reason here, on which his argument is founded; or examine if there be any disparity; for to others who cannot examine fo well, the disparity seems infinite. The condition which he demands, may be allowed, as well on his fide, as his adverfary's, That nothing can ever be made out of nothing, supposes that an infinitely powerful Being is as unable to create a new substance as dead matter is unable to perform the like effect. This is too large a postulate to be granted so easily! but of this more afterwards. Besides, it seems wrong to contend that a dead fubstance must as necessarily have been without origin, as a Being of infinite perfections; merely because such a Being had not perfection enough to produce this fluggish inert substance. This looks like denying a Being of infinite perfections. In his way of extracting, exalting, subliming, it would appear the Au-

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we can have of it; and abundance of other difficulties are endeavoured to be raised. Wherefore we shall proceed to consider the idea which all men naturally have of matter, and to shew from that, and from many circumstances in its existence, which must be determined by an external Cause, before we can

ther imagined that matter was to be made out of immaterial or thinking substance, as a pre-existing subject; or that Spirit was the materials from which the forry dregs of matter was to be drawn by a fort of chemical process. A little more argument and less metaphor would have been more convincing. If any thing existed necessarily, it was the very forry dregs of matter; for every thing folid and fubstantial in it appears to have been produced in time. Lastly, All this flourish is no more than what Pyrrho and the Sceptics affirmed long ago. They faid, " An incorporeal substance could not pro-"duce body." The reason they gave was, " because of no incorporeal thing produces body." And again, Body doth not produce any thing incorporeal, because the thing produced must be made out of a passive sub-" ject, or pre-existing materials. Aroundlov ? รม่นผู้ ซิท รัรเง ผู้เรื่อง . รุ่มผ ลู้จุลง ผู้อุดที่หญ่อง นอเลี้ อุดิμα ο σωμα ή ασωμάτε εκ αν είη αίτιον . ότι το γενόμενον, της πασχέσης ύλης όφελει ενώ Diog. Laert. Pyrrho. Hence it would appear, the examining Academist goes no farther than the doubting Sceptic.

conceive

conceive it to exist at all, that it must have had a commencement some time or other. It is to be observed that the two general hypotheses, on which men have chosen to build the eternity of matter, are, first, That it is eternal and uncaused; and secondly, That it is the eternal effect of an eternal cause. Of these in order. And here I must take notice that men have added to the natural difficulty of this subject, by starting all manner of subtile and wire-drawn objections to hinder any conclusion from being established: and then they complain of the fubtilty and abstractedness of the arguments; as if that were not occasioned by themselves. Every objection must be answered according to the nature of the argument it contains; and for men to have recourse to subtilties in raising difficulties, and then complain that they should be taken off by minutely examining these subtilties, is a strange kind of procedure. And to those who would defire to have the point fairly determined, without troubling themselves with abstract arguments on either side, the reasoning in the last parapraph, it is presumed, will give fatisfaction; and indeed more is unnecessary to any fair Enquirer.

III. Now

III. Now as to the idea of matter, a man, I think, must commit great violence on his mind, who raises it into the idea of a necesfarily existing Being. Not to mention that this is a false idea of it, as appears from what has been faid; our common observations concerning it, feem to fuggest to us, that it is only a thing contingent and passive. We can discover no perfection in it; it seems to be altogether subject to the power of active Beings; it is toffed about from place to place; the figure of it is changed all manner of ways; we fashion it as we please; and all the trouble it gives us, is only from its deadness and inactivity, things the farthest possible from heightening our ideas of any substance. These are the first and most general notions of mankind concerning matter: and if speculative men begin to confider it in a more accurate and philosophical way, they will discover nothing that can heighten their conceptions. Allowing we could not have an idea of the creation of matter; (though fomething very like the certainty of this creation hath been proved in N° 1.) yet if we offer to form a contrary idea of it, viz. that it is eternal and uncaused;

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so many absurdities arise, as shew we offer violence to our reason. The consequences of this supposition are, That matter must be self-sufficient in its own nature, or such a substance as owes nothing to any other Being; that it is contradictory to suppose one atom of matter less or more in the Universe; or to suppose it not to have existed in all time past, or not to exist in all time to come. But every particular of these is false, and proves this to be a false idea. It hath been shewn that matter owes its very nature and folid extension to an immaterial Cause; and the quantity of it is entirely arbitrary, which is a plain confequence of the former. Every atom of matter is a distinct substance; and nothing can be more unsupported than supposing such an infinite number of necessary, self-existent, distinct Beings. And if any atom in the whole number is not rigidly necessary, fo that it would imply a contradiction for it not to exist; no one atom in the whole mass is necessary, and the supposition itself falls to the ground.

That which forces us to own the existence of any thing necessary is, because it would imply a contradiction to suppose the contrary:

and if every atom of matter existed eternally, and without a cause, it would be as contradictory for it at any time not to have existed, as for the same thing to be, and not to be at once. In this case, the contradiction must be as far extended backward, as that supposition on which it is founded, viz. to eternity; for the atom is supposed eternal and uncaused: and this axiom, which is otherwise conditional becomes here unlimited; the condition being removed by supposition. Hence it must have been eternally a contradiction for such an atom not to have existed: but those who have maintained the eternity of matter, have never been able to prove it; fo far is the non-existence of an atom from implying a contradiction. Whence, as I faid, this supposition cannot be true, nor the idea of uncaused matter a just idea.

IV. To make this reasoning the more eafily understood, I shall take notice of a difficulty which I am told will lie against it. It is said that though from a thing's existing necessarily we can infer that it hath existed eternally, for there the consequence is plain; yet it is not so clear conversely, that from a thing's

thing's having existed eternally we can infer that it exists necessarily, so as to imply a contradiction in being supposed not to exist; and that the greatest difficulty in this argument is to make out this connexion. But I answer, If matter had no cause of existence, it must be felf-existent, or existence must belong to its nature; there is no medium: and if it be felfexistent, it must exist necessarily; a thing whose existence is of itself, and belonging to its nature, cannot be indifferent to exist or not exist: and if it exists necessarily, it must also be independent on any thing else for its existence. So when we suppose matter uncaused, we do as much as if we supposed it felf-existent necessarily existing, and independent on any thing else for its existence: and whatever contradiction there is in supposing a necessarily existing Being not to exist, the very fame there will be in supposing an eternal and uncaused Being not to exist, or uncaused matter not to exist: and the contradiction will appear thus. If any one should think there is only one necessary Being, and at the same time with the Atheist should add, that matter is this Being, (fince it is a plain contradiction that once nothing at all might have

have existed) if he supposes matter at any time not to have existed, this contradiction comes full home to him. [It would have been abfurd in Lucretius, who faid, Nothing existed but matter, to have said, Once matter itself might not have existed.] Or if he should fay there are two necessary Beings, of which matter is one, and that some time or other it might not have existed, he not only abfurdly makes the half of necessary Being contingent; but fince they are equally necessary if one might have not existed, the other also might have not existed; and thus still nothing at all might have once existed: and he will always be reduced to this, though he should suppose a hundred such Beings (d.) Let it he

(d) The argument shewing that matter doth not exist necessarily is of great consequence; since it follows from it, that an immaterial Being must have existed necessarily; for it would be absurd to say either that nothing exists necessarily, or that what exists necessarily is neither matter, nor not matter. Therefore I shall here remark another difficulty or two started against the reasoning in these two paragraphs. Because I have said, if matter existed eternally and without a cause, it is contradictory to suppose it not to have existed in all time past, or not to exist in all time to come: It hath been observed "That fome

Matter not eternal and uncaused. 337 be remembered that uncaused, self-existent, necessarily existing, and independent, are all equivalent

66 some may look on it in the natures of the things them-66 felves, as far as known to us, equally possible for them to have begun to be, or never begun to be [as having 66 always existed to wit]; or even after they have been " for ever, or for any time, to be annihilated by some cause endued with the requisite powers." But let it be confidered how abfurd it would be to affirm either of these contraries, matter began to be, or had a cause; matter never began to be, or had no cause, equally possible; of these the one must be unalterably true, and the other false; and if we know any thing, we must know that possibility cannot be equally competent to two such propositions more than to a proposition of Euclid, and the negation of it. If matter be a felf-existent thing, it was impossible for that very reason that ever it could have begun to be; and vice versa, if matter began to be, it was impossible it could have been self-existent. Though matter may be indifferent to existence or non-existence. (where there is no necessity on either fide); yet it could never be indifferent to necessary existence or arbitrary existence; that would be to make necessity itself confist in indifference. Whence it appears, that to entertain fuch a notion of matter, as is mentioned in the objection, would be extremely abfurd; and if it be a common way of thinking, it ought to be rectified. And farther, which soever of these two propositions, Matter existed by a cause, Matter existed by no cause, be the true Vol. II.

equivalent expressions; as appears from what has been said in this paragraph.

V. We

one; yet by the rules of argument, he who supposes the one to be true, must at the same time suppose the other to be false and impossible; which shews the argument above to proceed rightly. The last part of the difficulty shall be considered hereafter.

The other difficulty is of much greater consequence. I fay, That which forces us to own the existence of any thing necessary is, because it implies a contradiction to suppose the contrary. On this it is observed, "That if the Cartesian arguments from the idea of a God are " inconclusive, as they are generally now allowed to be, " it will be hard to fay that any Being is to us necessarily " existent in this sense; that when we infer from the " existence of other things an eternal uncaused Being, it "doth not come up to the fense here meant, else why 66 have we recourse to a train of reasoning, and do not " rather fee the contradiction immediately? Can the " mere speculation of ideas prove the existence of any "thing? The existence of such a Being must be an " axiom, and need no proof, fince its non-existence must imply an absurdity; fo that in this sense nothing seems " necessarily existing to us, not even the supreme Being, because it is from his effects we discover his existence, and not from any sufficient reason which discovers his existence à priori. That we know that an eternal " uncaused Being exists, a proof of this, à posteriori, is se allowed; but the sufficient reason, à priori, was never " given;

V. We may next observe concerning matter that if it existed necessarily, it either existed

" given; and till it can be known, how come we to be " fo bold in speaking of the manner of his existence?" To all this I answer, first, that I do think there is a strong necessity for the existence of Being in general, nay, a necessity for infinite existence; because otherwise an infinite and eternal nothing would be necessary. It feems to me the greatest absurdity to make all existence barely possible, or contingent; for even that supposes some Being necessary, of which it must be a possible effect. And if any existence be allowed necessary, it must be infinite existence; for where-ever necessary existence ends, a neceffary nothing will take place, either finite nothing, or infinite. But nothing can have no properties, otherwise it would be fomething. Infinite and eternal are necessary properties of something, and therefore of infinite and eternal Being. And this I would beg leave to call a demon-Aration of infinite and eternal existence, or Being, merely from the speculation of our own ideas, abstracting from effects; which if we should give up, we cannot, I think, pretend to be certain about any thing. Or let it be confidered thus, that there is an absolute, unconditional necessity either of existence or non-existence; and this will make one of the two universal and absolute. There cannot be a necessity for both; there would be then two absolute necessities opposing each other, whereby the necessity on both sides would be suspended or destroyed:

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ed necessarily in one solid mass, or in separate and incoherent parts. It could not exist neceffarily both these ways, fince the one excludes

nor can both be faid to be unnecessary, or indifferent; that would be a necessity of universal indifference, or of want of necessity, whereby opposite affections of Being, [necessity and indifference] would be confounded, or made the fame: and fuch notions applied to Being itself would make ftrange work in Philosophy. Absolute neceffity is every where alike and uniform, without difference or variety, which indeed shews the unity of the neceffary Being, as Dr. Clarke observes. Now I cannot help observing, that this seems very different from the Cartesian method. They first of all form, if not arbitrarily, at least voluntarily, the idea of an infinitely perfect Being, and argue for the necessity of his existence from that formed idea: but beginning in the manner here mentioned, the complex idea of an infinitely perfect Being forces itfelf upon us, property by property; and the idea itself becomes necessary. Let me farther observe that it seems. improper to apply here Mr. Leibnitz's principle of a sufficient reason. This necessity appears to me more than a fufficient reason, as it is necessity, for necessity is more than bare sufficiency. And this will hold also applied to the manner of necessary existence, which will itself, I hope, appear necessary immediately. And thus far here as to the proof of necessary Being, à priori, which I shall have occasion to refume in establishing the unity of the Deity. As

Matter not eternal and uncaused. 341 cludes the other: therefore it existed necessarily in one of them only. But it could not exist

As to what is faid, that though a proof à posteriori is allowed, yet we can determine nothing about the manner of his existence till the sufficient reason is known; I beg leave to observe, that supposing no proof à priori could be adduced, yet if it be shewn by arguments à posteriori, that this Being hath no cause of existence from without, it follows that he must have a necessity of it from within, or in his nature, just as effectually as it could have followed from a proof à priori: and this determines the manner of his existence as to necessity, that is the neceffity of it; and the manner of it in any other respect is not yet enquired into; nor are we guilty of any unwarrantable boldness, I think, in speaking thus much of the manner of his existence upon such grounds. I leave it here to the judicious to consider, whether in this case there be not a needless difference made of late, in point of conclusiveness, between a proof à priori and à posteriori. What fignifies it how we come to the knowledge of any truth, provided we come to the certain knowledge of it? Whether by the synthetic or analytic method; by beginning at the head and coming down to the foot, or by beginning at the foot and mounting to the head? In other parts of knowledge the analytic method is much infifted on, which is all by arguments à posteriori; and this brings no disadvantage to that particular science, or truth. Mathematicians in Algebra begin at the end, (if I may fo speak) and argue backward: and Z 3

exist necessarily either of these ways, since the other was equally possible, or implied no contradiction: that is, it existed necessarily

and having found out the truth this way, they make it a standing theorem, to argue à priori from, for ever after. Why should it be otherwise here? When by arguing from effects we find out that there must be an eternal uncaused Being, why may we not make this truth a standing theorem, and deduce all the same consequences from it, as if we had feen it directly without investigation. If we discover a necessarily existing Being à posteriori, we have then a fufficient reason à posseriori, for believing his existence; and if we have a sufficient reason à posteriori, why demand another sufficient reason à priori? - But in truth, we have a fufficient reason à priori, for we difcover a necessity of his existence, which is much the stronger. A sufficient reason is only applicable in the nature of things, I conceive, when we are enquiring about effects; but to require a sufficient reason of uneffected existence (or of the manner of it, which must be also uneffected, and therefore necessary) feems to me very absurd; it is the same as to require a sufficient cause able to effect these uncaused or necessary things. Lastly, I would observe that the denying a necessary Being may imply a contradiction, and yet that contradiction want to be brought out by a train of reasoning. The denying every true proposition as well as axioms, implies a contradiction; and yet these want to be proved. And those propositions may be axioms to the quick-sighted, which to others will require a demonstration,

one of these ways, and yet neither of them, which is a repugnancy. This argument holds with respect to the location of matter in some particular part of space, since the quantity of it is not immense; with respect to the figure of the mass, or of its separate parts; their distance, or situation; its state of rest or motion, and the direction or velocity of the motion, if matter be supposed to move. In short, indifference as to the manner of existence (that is, where more ways of existence are all equally possible) is inconsistent with necessity of existence: for all the ways being, by supposition, equally possible, the necessity of any one of them is prevented; and therefore the necessity of any manner of existence, or the necessity of existence in general. In this case we are forced to suppose an external cause determining one particular manner of existence out of more possible ones. And this is applicable to the condition of matter particularly: for being a dead inactive substance, as has been made appear, and indifferent to the several ways of its existing, and not being able to determine this indifference itielf, an external cause to determine the manner of its existence is absolutely necessary: and fince it could not exist at all

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but in some manner, an external cause was abfolutely necessary to make it exist at first, or to give it any manner of existence.

VI. Here again it hath been urged, "That " indifference as to the manner of existence " may not be inconfistent with a Being's ex-" isting necessarily in some manner; if it be " allowed that a Being which owes its exiflence to no other Being, may be affected " by other Beings as to the manner of its ex-" istence, which does not appear so absurd as " to be eafily confuted." Whether by these last words it be meant that God Almighty may be affected by his creatures as to the manner of his existence, or that matter which owes its existence to nothing else (which by the way would be a begging the question) is so affected as to have the manner of its existence changed, I know not; only it had been proper to have faid fomething in proof of this supposition, or to have affigned the instance, fince it is made the ground of an objection. However, the absurdity of it may appear in general thus. If a necessary Being might have the manner of its existence changed by any other Being, it must depend on that other Being

Being for the manner of its existence at least: and if it depended on another Being for the manner of its existence, it must depend on that Being for existence itself; since it cannot exist but in some manner. Existence taken separately from all manner of existence is an impossibility, the negation of existence. But it hath been shewn (N° 4.) that a self-existent Being must be also independent for its existence, and therefore for the manner of its existence. Nay, so independent is the manner of necessary existence, that it is even abfurd to suppose it to depend on the necessary Being itself, or to be determined by it; for it ought to exist before it could determine the manner of its own existence, and therefore to exist without determining the manner of its existence; or to exist in a necessary and independent manner. Or thus. It ought to exist before it could determine the manner of its own existence, and yet to determine the manner of its existence before it could exist, since the manner of its existence is supposed dependent on, and therefore determined by itself; which is repugnant. In a word, if the manner of necessary existence were dependent, it would be effected: and

as we suppose it dependent on another Being, or the necessary Being itself, it would be effected by one or other of these respectively. And, since existence cannot be without a manner, the supposition ends in this palpable contradiction, That an uncaused Being is caused by another Being, or by itself.

VII. I am folicitous to remove the prejudices of men in this material point, and therefore observe that the manner of necessary existence is otherwise proved to be itself necesfary, thus. If the manners of necessary existence are more than one, then they are either all unnecessary, or contingent only; or they are all necessary; or, lastly, one of them only is necessary. First, if they are all contingent or unnecessary, fince the Being could not exist then but in one of these unnecessary manners, it could not exist neceffarily at all. For, as I have faid, existence, taken separately from all manners of existence, is an impossibility; so that it is contradictory to fay existence is of a different nature from all manners of existence. Conceive, if it be possible, a Being stript of all manners of existence; and then enquire about the

the nature of its existence if you can. It must be then annihilated, having no manner of existence, and therefore an existence of no nature. Existence without a manner is but an abstract idea: and hence it is that from the manner of it only it receives the denomination of necessary, contingent; happy, miserable: &c. Secondly, if the manners are all faid to be necessary, (passing by the contradiction in fuch a supposition) when the Being exists in any one of them, all the rest must be unnecessary for that time at least, nay impossible; fince a Being cannot exist in two different manners at once. Thus the impossibility would go round through them all, and this supposition would make them all as unnecessary as the former, the necessity is but nominal. Now fince there could be no necesfary Being in either of these two suppositions, and yet it is certain that fome Being exists necessarily, it follows that the manner of its existence is one, necessary, and immutable. And this shews, as I concluded before, (N° 5.) that matter is not an uncaused or necesfarily existent thing, whose manners of existence are so various and different. This principle therefore, That indifference as to the manner

manner of existence, is inconsistent with necessity of existence, and supposes another Being to determine it, and of consequence to give existence to that thing at first, stands firm; and ought, I think, to be received as an undoubted truth in philosophy. Let it also from hence be remembered, that existence cannot be of a different nature from the manner of it, or from the present manner of it; for it hath no other thing to give it a nature, or denomination, or to constitute a difference in it, being otherwise only a general or abstract idea. But to go on with the farther consideration of matter.

VIII. If it was eternal and uncaused, it received nothing from any other Being, and its nature and properties are self-existent. Now the nature or matter, without which it could not be what it is, and without which it would be nothing to us, is, that it is a substance solidly extended, figured, moveable, divisible. But a substance extended and figured is a plain effect, and infers a cause which thus extended and figured it; when we say a thing is fashioned, made, wrought, we intimate a cause which wrought and fashioned

Matter not eternal and uncaused. 349 tashioned it after that manner. Extended, figured, fashioned, wrought, are all alike expressions of the passive form (e). How odly would

(e) It hath been observed here, that this is only a grammatical argument. But let it be so; it shews us that even the propriety of expression leads us into a just way of thinking. Let a man fay, whether it is not literally true of matter, as it is a folidly extended fubstance, that it is figured, fashioned, wrought; and if so, whether it can be other than an effect, either in grammar or philosophy? It would be hard to suppose these two inconfistent. Since we have not another way of communicating our thoughts but by language, if there were no propriety in the expression, there could be no justness in the thought when communicated. And since it has been shewn that the constant action of an immaterial Being constitutes the very folid extension of matter, this justifies the propriety of the expression; for it could never have been thus folidly extended, or figured at first without the action of this Being; i. e. it could not have been without a cause.

With respect to this it hath been farther urged, that "If my expression [matter is figured, extended, placed,] be turned thus, [matter has figure, extension, place,] "the argument vanishes with the form of expression it." But I ask, Whether the Objector's manner of expression makes figure, extension, place, any powers or activities belonging to matter? If they are only marks of passivity in it, we are just where we were before; they must still

appear

350 Matter not eternal and uncaused. would it sound to say a self-existent house, an uncaused pyramid or statue? The absurdity is not

appear effects, however disguised by the manner of expreffion. If it be certain that matter could not exist without figure, or extension, or place, and yet could not give these to itself; what are we to conclude? That fuch passive affections are necessary and self-existent? Matter could not have folid extension, unless an immaterial power were exerted upon it, (see No 1.) it could not therefore have figure or place, as being eternal and uncaused. If I should say, the table I write upon is a substance figured, and another contend that it is only fubstance having figure; would his changing the expression shew that the figure of the table was necessary and selfexistent? The cases seem to be much alike. One might indeed chuse to say, matter is a substance having inactivity, instead of matter is an inactive substance; but the inactivity of matter would not vanish with the form of speech. I say, matter is a folid, figured, extended substance; it should be shewn then that this expression is improper, or ambiguous; and that it hath led me to make a wrong conclusion; otherwise to find fault with it, is what may be called nodum in scirpo quærere: and to turn it to a form less common, and less just, is endeavouring to perplex a plain case.

It is still farther urged on this Head, "That the loca"tion of matter, or its being in one place rather than ano"ther, cannot prove that it doth not exist necessarily,

[&]quot; as I pretend; because necessary existence has relation
" only

Matter not eternal and uncaused. 351 not less, though it be less attended to, when we suppose an uncaused globular particle of matter,

"conly to time, but not to place; or it implies that the thing must have existed through all points of time, and for ever, but not in all places and every where." This is the common notion concerning necessary existence; but if we consider what has been said in the two last paragraphs, concerning the manner of necessary existence, which must be itself necessary, this notion will appear to be only a common prejudice. I shall here apply the argument to matter in particular, and endeavour to shew that necessary of existence hath as much a relation to place as to time.

If we say matter exists necessarily in general, but not with respect to any particular place; since place is as neceffary an affection of its existence as extension itself (for extension cannot be without place;) it is as if we should fay, the extension of matter in general is necessary, but in particular it is only contingent or cafual; or thus, the existence of matter is necessary, but a necessary affection of that necessary existence is only cafual. Thus the general and particular existence of matter should have contrary natures: or the existence of matter, and a necessary affection of that existence, should have contrary natures. This affirms and denies the necessary existence of matter at once. And there is no avoiding this contradiction, for the objection supposes matter to have two different kinds of existence; it supposes the existence of matter in general to be undetermined by any thing elfe, as it exifts necessarily;

matter, a felf-existent cubical atom. Figuration is one of those things which unavoidably

necessarily; but matter must exist particularly, and is not what Logicians call an Universale à parte rei; and therefore its particular existence must be determined. Now since matter can only exist particularly, and hath no general existence, it cannot exist without being determined by an external cause as to place. And since its existence hath no necessary relation to place, it is not necessary. Here the Objector supposes matter once determined as to place, (or once determined in its particular existence) no matter how: and having supposed this, he contends no determination is necessary, and that the argument from determining its particular location hath no force to shew that it could not be felf-existent.

The argument which writers make use of to shew that matter doth not exist necessarily, is this: If matter exists not necessarily in this place, it doth not exist necessarily in another place; and therefore it exists necessarily in no place. The strength of this argument would be better perceived perhaps, if it were drawn out at greater length, which may be done in the following manner.

If matter exists necessarily at all, it either exists necessarily in no place; or in all places; or lastly, in any place it is supposed to be in. These are all the suppositions that can be made, and yet they are all contradictory. As to the first, if matter be said to exist necessarily in no place, it is denied to exist necessarily at all. The property which its existence hath in no place, is no property

ably imply causation. The conception of matter is not that it is a substance figuring, and

property of its existence. The second, that matter exists necessarily in all places, is a direct contradiction; for fince matter (any particle of it, or the whole mass) can exist but in one determined place at once, in all other places it exists neither necessarily, nor unnecessarily. Where it exists not, its existence hath still no properties. And the third supposition, viz. That matter exists neceffarily in whatever place it is supposed to be in, is repugnant in the very terms. It cannot be faid to be in any place, rather than another, but by supposition, and at the fame time it is faid to be necessarily there. What I observed just before is very evident here; the determination is once supposed, or matter is once supposed in a certain determined place; and it is hence inferred that no external determination is necessary, or that matter exists necessarily there. If this be not so, let the Objector asfign another reason, why it should exist in any particular and determined place, besides his own supposition. Let the place it is faid to be in, be called A; it exists therefore in the place A at the time a; now it was equally possible that it might have existed in the place B at the time a; or there is no other necessity for its existing in this place, but an arbitrary supposition; and another man might have supposed with equal reason, that it existed in the place B, C, or D, at the time a. But to suppose it existing in the place A at the time a, and thence to infer that it exists necessarily there at that time, is as much as to fay, My supposing it to exist there makes it necessarily VOL. II. .A 2 8x: 3

and extending; but a substance actually figured, and impenetrably extended (f): and that

exist there. Which shews, as has been said, that necessity of existence has as much relation to place as to time. And therefore since matter is indifferent as to existing in any place, it requires an external, or immaterial cause to determine its place, or location; and since it could not exist at all, but in some place; it requires an immaterial cause to determine its existence in some place at first.

And the fame kind of argument will be applicable, to shew its indifference as to being of this or another figure; having the parts of its mass contiguous, or feparated; and if separated, as to having them at this or another distance. And the same reasoning will also shew its indifference as to being in a state of rest or motion, as to having this or another direction, this or another degree of velocity; in all which an infinite variety is possible. And in spite of all evasions that can be thought on, this argument shews that matter is not a felf-existent or uncaused substance.

(f) Here it hath been asked, "If we may not say that space is extended as well as body?" I answer, that it cannot be said to be extended in the same sense that body or matter is. The idea we have of space is of extension in the abstract, not of a concrete extended substance. And this takes off the sorce of the objection from a supposed parity. Upon this account Mr. Locke chuses to call it expansion, (Book 2. chap. 15. Sect. 1.) and we conceive it as a thing incapable of contraction, distattion, motion, divisibility, or separation of parts (See Mr. Locke, Book 2. chap. 13. Sect. 12, 13, 14, 15, 16 and

a fubstance should be figured with infinite diversity, and extended arbitrarily, and yet by

and 17.) But chiefly we conceive it as necessary and infinite, incapable of change, and impossible to be produced or annihilated. It would be contradictory to fay, space is extended in some places only. The Cartesians make matter infinite, to get free of infinite space; so necessary is it even in their conception. They faw wherever matter ended, pure space would begin; this made them change the Aristotelian notion, as to the finiteness of matter; for Aristotle both made the world finite, and yet allowed neither place nor emptiness, nor time, beyond the heaven Γ Αμα ή δηλον ότι έδὲ τόπος, εδὲ κενόν, έδὲ χρόν Φ ές ν έξω τε έρανε. De cœlo, lib. I cap. 11.] And yet it is to be observed, that he did not constitute a pure non-entity, or negation of all Being, without the mundane limits; but places living, unchangeable, happy, eternal Beings there. ['Aλλ' ἀναλλοίωλα, κὰ ἀπαθη, τ ἀρίσην έχουλα ζωήν, η τ αυταρκες άτην, διαλελεί न απανλα αίωνα. Ibid.] It had been absurd to place a small quantity of matter amidst an infinite nothing. Thus we fee what violence men offered to their ideas when they denied space to be actually infinite. A Cartesian, or even an Aristotelian plenum is as certainly false as it is true that there is fuch an affection of body as motion. In short, we cannot conceive, without repugnancy, that space can be taken away, or that it was stretched out at any certain time, or by a particular action: or, contrarily, that body was placed rather in one part than another of this necesfary immensity, without the particular act of some Be-

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by nothing, is the same absurdity as that there may be an effect without a cause. This argument hath not been hitherto sully considered; but it will appear to a reasonable man, after the exactest weighing of things, that the location of body rather in this than that place, implies the act of some Being: that the significant of any particle of matter required an external cause; and that its determined quantity of solidity, rather more or less, could not have been without a determining principle. These are the inseparable characteristicks of an effect; and let us pursue matter as far as we please, we can never find it divested of

ing; or that it was extended thus far only, and no farther, without the determination of an external agent. The extension of body then implies a particular action exerted, but the extension of space implies no such thing: so we cannot truly say space was extended, nor apply the term extended to both in the same sense. I may farther take notice here, that they who make matter necessary (all sorts of Atheists) should observe the great difference between space and matter in point of necessity. Space hath all the true marks of necessary extension, matter all the contrary. To say once space was not extended implies a contradiction; it is impassive, without sigure, location, division, situability, motion. Two things equally necessary, could not have opposite affections in respect of that very necessity.

them.

them. There are not more marks of an effect about a house, or a statue, than can be shewn about the rudest piece of matter; not so many, as about the least assignable part of it, if we consider the constituent particles of an asfignable part, and the parts of a house, or statue, as fuch. Why should I allow, if I find a piece of wood shaped, that this shape was given it by something? and if I consider any other part of matter as having shape, that this shape was given it by nothing? Or if I find the piece of wood lying any where, that it was dropt there, or laid there, by something; and if I consider any part of matter as placed, that it was laid there, or placed there by nothing? Certainly if we confider this point cooly, the figure, the quantity, the location of any part of matter, will as readily lead our thoughts to a cause of them, not matter; as the dimensions, figure, &c. of a house, lead us to a cause of them, not the house itself.

IX. Moreover, matter is a thing moveable, divisible, situable, with respect to other matter: these are all passive qualities of matter, no powers in it, but capacities or properties, whereby it is capable of being variously af-

Aa 3

fected

fected by fome Being having power thus to vary and modify it; and all flowing from the nature or primary conception of it. Matter that is not divisible, or moveable, or situable, with respect to other matter, is not matter at all to us: denying this of it, we deny every thing we conceive concerning it, and quite destroy our idea of such a substance. But to be passive implies to be made or effected. To have power and activity doth not straight conclude that the Being is not an effect: but to want these, and to be entirely passive, is an argument we may rely upon, that the thing is an effect of an active cause; otherwise it is passive for no reason, and by no agent, being passive by and from nothing. Passivity can only in the order of nature be confequent upon activity, as much as effect can only be confequent upon cause; and there is the same indissoluble connexion between what is passive and that from which it is passive (fomething active namely) as there is between effect and cause. Passive and active, truly speaking, are but the just epithets of effected and efficient. It is not possible to assign an instance of a thing's being passive, but what relates either to its being produced at first, or having the manner

manner of its existence changed by an active cause. If indeed it were possible that a passive substance should not be the effect of an active cause, but uneffected, uncaused; then there would be no need of any cause at all to produce any effect; for effects, or things of a passive nature, might be self-existent, which would confound reason, and put an end to philosophy.

X. Against this argument from the passivity of matter the following difficulty hath been moved. "There feems to be this ma-" terial difference betwixt a thing's being " passive in relation to another Being, and a "thing's being an effect of a cause, that the " first as a relation might never exist, tho" "the things exist; the other must exist when-" ever the subjects exist. A thing may be of " a passive nature, and yet never acted upon. "This relation, if the cause of it is asked, " flows from the nature and effence of things. " May not one argue from a thing's existing " of an active nature, that the passive Being " must necessarily exist in the same manner " as you do in this place?" To this I answer first, that it is not to be understood how a relation Aa4

lation should not exist, if the related things themselves exist; nor how a thing of a pasfive nature should exist without ever having been acted upon. If father and son exist, the relation between them must exist: nay, if the fon alone exists, being a related thing, this as much infers that the father existed in the generation, as if both the terms were expressed; fince a relation cannot confist in one term. In like manner, a thing of a passive nature is a relative term, and infers a thing different from itself to be the other term of the relation. If a relation flows from the nature of things, it flows from the nature of both the related things. It cannot flow from the nature of one thing only. Relations are as eternal between the ideas in the Divine Mind as any thing else; but even there a relation doth not confist in one idea. And these ideas are the origin of the nature and effence of things. This expression, "athing " may be of a passive nature and yet never " acted upon," passes over the main point, and shuffles in another instead of it. It supposes a thing of a passive nature once existing, no matter how, but without having been acted upon in the production; and then infifts up-

on a thing possible enough, that afterward it may never have been acted upon in having the manner of its existence changed. But the question here is, Whether a thing of a passive nature could exist without an active nature to produce it at first, or having been passive from fomething in the production? This is supposed, and the relation, included in the term (passive) alledged never to have existed. But waving this, I fay the reason why we conclude any thing to be an effect at all, is the observing it to want power and action, and yet feeing power and action exerted upon it. This is the characteristic of an effect, by which we know it to be an effect, though we were not present, at the production of it: and it is the case of matter in particular; and if, notwithstanding this, it may be still self-existent, the distinction of cause and effect is entirely lost in philosophy, and all reasoning is at an end, as I have faid. Surely it can never be right to admit of fuch a principle as will stop our mouths for ever after, and entirely prevent our reasoning about any thing. Now there is not more power manifested when matter hath the manner of its existence changed, by motion to wit, which is confessedly allowed to

be an effect, than is manifested in it considered without any change in the manner of its existence; that is, by the terms, than is manifested in the mere production of it. Any finite particle of matter in this case may be confidered as a large system, where numberless things are done: the figure of every part of it is determined, and that to an indefinite minuteness; the relative situation of all these numberless under parts is determined, and neceffarily to be supposed determined in the very first production; the quantity of solid extension is determined: the indifference in all those particulars that were mentioned in No 5. is determined to one certain circumstance out of millions of others equally possible, by fome thing. I add then, There is not by far fo much power manifested when matter hath the manner of its existence changed, (by motion) as is manifested in the simple existence of it. And could this thing exist without power exerted: that is, without an active sause; that is, without having been passive in the very production? Observe, it is contradictory to fay matter exerted this power itself: allowing that now it has power, this is a power exerted previous to its having any;

it is a power exerted in order to its very existence: it could not exert a power before it existed. And since matter itself is not this determining, this operating, this powerful principle, is not the existence of an immaterial Being necessary to give it its first existence? Can a figure be determined both in magnitude and kind, and yet by nothing? Must not then this passive thing have been acted upon in the very production of it? From a philosophical survey of the nature of matter we can never draw this inference, "That a " thing may be of a passive nature, and yet " never have been acted upon." Matter is not barely fituable, but really fituated, which requires a particular act. Thus fituation implies not only the passive capacity, but that it hath actually been passive, from another thing, or acted upon: and this relation must have existed as soon as matter existed. The same is to be faid in other respects; matter is not only figurable and extendible, but de facto figured and extended. It is not possible here (which I beg may be attended to) to conceive the simple passive capacity, without the relative act exerted. So much doth a near inspection of the nature of matter shew it to

be an effect, that we could have no notion of it at all without the idea of the act implied, whereby it was produced. No man could have the idea of a substance situable, sigurable, or extendible, which had not already some situation, some figure, and a determined extension: he cannot conceive it existing without these; nor produced first, and receiving these determinations afterward. As to the question that is put, "If one may not ar-" gue from the existence of an active nature, " that the passive Being must necessarily ex-" ist, in the same manner as I do in this " place?" I answer, by no means. I argue from the passive nature of matter, that it must have been produced by an active Being, and therefore have begun to be: but an active Being doth not require a passive nature to be the cause of it, (that is repugnant) as the dead or passive substance requires an active Being to be its cause. A dead substance doth not only want an active Being to act upon it before the manner of its existence can be changed; but to produce it at first; in which case there is no arguing conversly. Perhaps fomething farther may be intended in this objection; if any fuch thing be, what the reader

Matter not eternal and uncaused. 365 reader will meet with towards the end of

this Section, will furnish him with a sufficient reply to it.

XI. It is observable that this argument from the passivity of matter concludes in few words, from what has been faid in N° 6 and 7. If a felf-existent Being could not have depended on another Being for the manner or mode of its felf-existence, that manner of self-existence could not have been changed at any time by another Being; for it must be equally selfexistent at all times. If it depended for the manner of its existence on any Being, it must have depended for its existence itself on that Being; fince existence is not of a different nature from the manner of it (N° 7.) And therefore it could not have been passive from another Being, fo as to have the manner of its felf-existence changed: it could never have been fo much as capable of this. Therefore converfly, a Being that is capable of having the manner of its existence changed, or of being thus passive from another Being, cannot be uncaused, or self-existent; and therefore matter cannot be such (g.) From this,

⁽g) From what is faid here, the answer to the last part

and what has been faid in N° 7. it follows eafily, and is to be marked as a confequence,

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of the difficulty in the Note at (d) is plain. It was faid there that it seems possible, "that a thing which hath existed from eternity may be annihilated, by a being endued with the requisite powers." But an eternal uncaused thing must be self-existent, by No 4. and by this No 11. the manner of its felf-existence cannot be changed, nor therefore taken from it; nor therefore can its existence itself be taken from it; that is, it cannot be annihilated. A felf-existent being was secured à parte ante eternally) from fuch contingency: no other being (supposing another) could thus effect a self-existent nature. And it is abfurd to suppose that a being might rife up in time, which should have this power over it. What was a contradiction from eternity, must be a contradiction to eternity; because a contradiction can never become possible. It is a begging the question to suppose any being may be endued with the requisite powers to perform fuch an effect: It is as if I should say, A circle and square may be made to co-incide in all their points, by a being endued with the requisite powers. It is a mighty unphilosophical prejudice to clothe a felf-existent being with all the marks of contingency in our imagination; and yet this taken the contrary way makes us think it fo eafy, as is infinuated in this objection, for a contingent thing to be felf-existent. We make the transition from the one to the other a mere trifle; though their difference is so great, that it cannot be illustrated by any comparison the wit of man can invent: necessary existence is infinitely higher

That the manner of felf-existence must be immutable; and that a self-existent Being can have no accidents, or things not necessary in it. And that there must be such a felf-existent Being, immaterial, the cause and author of matter, is now evident, if what has been said in this and the former Sections be duly considered.

XII. It will be to no purpose, in order to elude the reasoning above, to say Matter was extended and figured eternally and without beginning, so that we are not to enquire how, or when, or by whom. This is to say it was extended, without being extended at any time; or sigured, without being figured by any cause: it is to allow it to be an effect, and at the same time to deny it had a cause,

higher above contingent existence, than contingent existence is above utter non-existence. In short, this whole objection taken together amounts to the following plain absurdity. A Being endued with the requisite powers may make matter either a necessarily existent thing, or a contingent thing: for either of these two cannot be equally possible in the nature of matter itself, as is supposed, unless it be possible to some Being. I am the more express here that I may awaken men to a due sense of the infinite difference of these two natures.

in denying that ever it was thus passive from any thing, or at any time. In short, it is to bid us shut our eyes, and make no farther enquiry, but allow matter to be an eternal paffive lump. If we say a thing was done, and at no time, we deny that it was done: in the same manner, if we say an effect was performed and by no cause, we deny it to be an effect. To say matter was eternally figured, or extended, is an affected, unintelligible expression, which, attentively considered, grows into a contradiction; for any thing done, as matter figured, extended, &c. is a thing done, must partake of the common affections of time, place, and a cause; insomuch that if we deny any of these inseparable affections concerning the thing done, we deny the thing itself to be done. Matter extended, and yet by no cause, and at no time, or no where, is matter not extended, no matter.

XIII. And for this reason that a thing done must be done in some time, matter cannot be an eternal effect of an eternal cause, which is the second hypothesis I mentioned, by which some philosophers have endeavoured to maintain the eternity of matter. This is

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still an affected unintelligible expression. The supposing an action, such as the effecting of matter must be, destroys the idea of eternity in the thing effected by that action. Every action must have a beginning and an end, these are included in the conception of action; for if it were without a beginning, the thing is not yet begun, or never was begun; and what was never begun cannot be now ended, as the production of matter is. The denying these limits to action, amounts still to an absolute negation of it. And to fay matter was produced without action, is as much as to fay, it was effected without agency or efficiency. It will be faid, God is eternal, and naturally active; therefore an action may be eternal: for the Philosophers who say matter is an eternal effect, are not Atheists. But though it be certain that the Agent is eternal, it will never follow that any particular act is eternal. It is the nature of any particular act to be circumfcribed and temporary, that is, in other words, to be limited both before and behind, which is a condition inconfistent with eternity. Upon this account it is to no purpose to endeavour to entangle the present question, and then to lose it among the perplexities concerning a VOL. II. Bb 111:00/-

that, when men contend that the eternity of a Being is made up of finite parts of duration, all succeeding one another, they are far from supposing that any part can be the first part; that would ruin their conclusion. Whereas here we are forced to conceive that an effect must receive existence by a particular act, and therefore to have a first part, or beginning of its successive duration; and this hypothesis afferts matter to be an effect. If this be well attended to, it will readily prevent a reply. And indeed if men would speak nothing but what they understand, and have ideas of, it is not conceivable what can be replied. For,

XIV. It is certain, by what is faid above, that fome other Being determined the manner of matter's existence at first, and therefore the existence itself, or gave it existence, since existence without a manner is impossible. Now let a man answer it to his own understanding, if when matter got existence, that doth not plainly imply that it had it not before it got it. And if it ever was without existence, whether its existence can be eternal. It appears to me, that to say, an effect may

be eternal, is the same as to say, a thing which had a beginning may want a commencement. It is of no consequence how far back we carry this beginning in our imagination, provided the conception of it adheres necessarily to matter, as it hath been shewn to do. The carrying a limit farther back will never make it no limit. Again, let this antithesis be taken notice of. It is the nature of a felf-existent cause never not to exist; and it is the nature of matter, an effect ex hypothefi. to begin to exist. What conclusion are we to draw from this? Will it ever follow from it that, Therefore these two are co-eval, equal as to eternity? Here is not only a priority of nature, but of existence, or time; which I defire may be confidered (b.)

XV. It

(b) It hath been urged here, "That it is not yet "made sufficiently evident that a being acting from eterinity, may not always have acted in a particular maniner on a subject; and consequently, may not also have
produced the subject of its action in all time, or from eternity." But to this I reply, that this itself is a very dark unintelligible notion, and what no body, I think, can have a clear conception of, that a particular act, such as the production of any sinite particle of matter may be spun out into an eternal duration, as if infinite power were employed negatively, or in delaying the effect; for B b 2.

XV. It was a hankering after the eternal atoms of Democritus and Epicurus, and that

fo I prefume we must conceive, if infinite power was always acting in producing the least assignable atom of matter: and in this argument, whatever agrees to any the least affignable particle, agrees to the whole mass, which certainly is not infinite. I mean, it must be said that every particle of matter must have been a-producing in all time, or from eternity; for if it was temporary, the production of a finite mass could be but temporary. And even tho' the whole mass were infinite, yet unless every the smallest atom of it was a-creating through eternity, any finite portion of that mass, our earth, for instance, would still be but temporary, as confisting of parts that did not take up an infinite time in the making. And the reasoning is the fame with respect to the sun, moon, &c. And the inhabitants of any other fystem, if such there are, might still with reason conclude, that their system also was temporary: and fo of others. Nor doth the difficulty end here; for as any affignable part confifts of numberless other parts, by the fame kind of reasoning, we must at length be forced to fay, that any infinitely little part was the work of Omnipotence through eternity: for there will be all the fame arguing about the least finite part as about the greatest. Besides, it is to be observed, that to suppose a subject eternally pre-existing, as is here done, is no reason to infer that a subject may be eternal in the production, or before it be made to exist. Not to mention that to suppose a passive subject eternally pre-existing is equal to a tacit

they might get matter fome way or other allowed to be eternal, which made some Platonists contrive such evasions, contrary to Plato's own fentiments. He himself said, "God " made the world visible and invisible, out " of no pre-existing subject; and that his will " alone was sufficient for the existence of "things (i)." Where, by the way, it is very obvious, that what is made out of nothing cannot be eternal: for it did not exist, or was not effected, when as yet it was nothing, for to express it, or as long as it was nothing. And there is no medium between having been once nothing, and eternally something: that is, we cannot join these two together, and make a compounded, or third nature out of them; fuch a thing, to wit, as should have been once nothing, as being effected, and yet eternal; and every one must perceive that the

tacit begging the question that matter is eternal without any production; contra demonstrata, if the arguments in

the first part of the section be right.

(i) Καὶ καὶὰ Πλάτωνα Θεὸν αὐτῷ προϋΦίς ποιν ἡ σκέψις, πάσης ἐμφανᾶς τε κὰ ἀφανᾶς δημικερὸν διακοσμήσεως, ἢν ἐκ μηθενός φησιν ὑποκειμένε προαίαγεῦν το Τεχνίτην ἀρκεν γὰρ αὐτῷ εἰς ὑπός ασιν τῶν ὄνὶων τὸ βέλημα. Hierocl. de Providentia & Fato, ex Photii Bibliotheca.

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present scheme supposes these two inconsistent things joined together. The followers of Plato did not agree among themselves. Some of them made matter eternal without being an effect, a fifter-substance to the Deity, αγένη ον η άδελ φην έσίαν (k), as if the lowest Being went as high in the highest perfection of self-existence, as the supreme Being. Their manner of explaining this is worth observing. They faid, "God was not able or sufficient " of himself to make a world, but used the " co-operation [συνεργία] of eternal matter; " and that, all things existing vertually in " matter before-hand, he only delineated, " shaped and wrought them off, out of the " common mass and from their original rude " form (1)." They indeed excluded Epicurus's

(k) Ibid.

(1) Καὶ τί, Φησὶ, καὶαλέιω σοι τέτες, ὅπε γε ἢ τη Πλαὶονικῶν τινες ἐκ ὁρθὴν τὴν περὶ δημιεργε Θεε διασώζεσιν ἔννοιαν; ἐγὰρ ἰκανὸν αὐτὸν εἶναι ὡἡθησαν αὐτοθελῶς ὑποςῆσαι δύνασθαι κόσμον οἰκέα δυνάμει ἢ σοφία ἐξ αιδίε ἐνεργενὶα. ἀλλ' ἀγενήτε ΰλης συνεργία, ἢ τῆ μὴ παρ αὐτε ὑποςάση Φύσει καὶαχρώμενον μόνως δημιεργεν δύνασθαι πάνὶων μὲν δυνάμει προϋποκειμένων ἐν τῆ λείομένη ὕλη, αὐτε ἢ οἱονεὶ διαζωίραφενὶ Θα αὐτα, ἢ τάτὶονὶ μόνον, ἢ διακρίνονὶ Θ (μόνον) ἐκ τε ὑλεκε σχήμαὶ Θ. Ibid. Here,

rus's chance; but they made a dead substance as necessary as a living Being in the nature of things: as if felf-existent deadness must have contributed its help to self-existent Power, before a world could be formed. At this rate the negation, of every perfection might be made a felf-existing thing; and there might bean eternal necessity of imperfection, as well as of perfection in nature! They imagined infinite power could not produce a certain effect; therefore they kindly affisted it out of their own fancy, by supposing the effect already performed, and all the difficulty over. What can be easier? It is just such an argument as if we should contend, that no Being could cut and form the parts of a watch, tho' it might fet them together, if we suppose them eternally pre-existing: and therefore the

Here, if we consider what hath been proved before, viz. that it is the power of the Deity exerted, which constitutes the very solid nature of matter; it must appear a direct contradiction to say any thing existed vertually in it. One would almost think these Philosophers had been Carpenters by trade, and had confined the Deity to their own manner of working; at least their whole description savours of the lowest Mechanick. If matter be utterly inactive, how can it co-operate? What hath no inserpress. can never afford consequía or assistance to another Being.

B b 4

parts

parts pre-existed eternally! The self-existence of a dead inactive substance is as great an abfurdity, when we suppose the Deity to coexist with it, as if we denied him, or rather greater; because then we allow the existence of a Powerful Cause, which we deny on the other hypothesis. And, as hath been said above, there is as much power actually exerted, be it by what it will, before the rudest piece of matter could be made fimply to exist, as could be exerted in changing the manner of its existence: and that it should be exerted, and by nothing too is strange. We allow that a power must be actually exerted to move the particle A from B to C, or along the line B C: but the intelligent Reader will never deny, that it requires power to place it at B first, and to determine all those things likewise in its simple existence, which I have shewn are to be determined.

XVI. The other fort of *Platonifts* allowed *God* to have made the world, both as to *form* and *fubstance*; but yet so as that it proceeded from a necessity of his nature, and was a consequence παρακολέθημα, of

it (m): or so that he had no priority of existence before his own effect, which therefore had no beginning in time (n). But if God created matter by a necessity of nature, he could never not create it; for, as hath been shewn, there is no mutability in his nature,

(m) Καὶ εἰ βέλει, παραδείγμαὶι σέ τινι τηνωρίμων ξεναγήσω πρὸς τὸ ζητέμενον · Φασὶ γὰρ ὅτι καθάπερ αἴτιον τὸ σῶμα τῆς ἐκάς εκ σκιᾶς γίνεὶαι ὁμόχρον ἢ τῷ σώμαὶι ἐ σκιὰ, ἢ ἐκ ὁμότιμω· ἔτω ἢ ἢ ὅδε ὁ κόσμω· ἢ παρακολέθημά ἐςι τε Θεε, αἰτίε ὅνιω αὐτῷ τε εἶναι, ἢ συναίδιός ἐςι τῷ Θεῷ, ἐκέτι ἢ ὁμότιμω·. Zachariæ Scholiast. as cited by Dr. Clarke. Another of these comparisons is to be found in the same place from St. Augustin. Sicut enim inquiunt [Platonici] si pes exæternitate semper fuisset in pulvere, semper ei subesset vestigium, & c.

(n) Qui autem à Deo quidem factum fatentur mundum, non tamen eum volunt temporis habere sed sux creationis initium; ut modo quodam vix intelligibili, semper sit factus. Ibid. ab eod. Here how could the world, if it had a beginning of creation, be without a beginning of time? This is searce intelligible indeed, or rather plainly contradictory. But though Philosophers of all men are obliged to speak nothing except what they understand, and conceive possible; yet they are the only men in the world perhaps, who have spoke the greatest nonsense; insomuch that there is scarce any thing so absurd, which some or other of them have not maintained.

and this necessity must always remain: or God must create matter constantly as well as necessarily. Shall we think that he created an infinity of it; and that (no more after that being possible) he is forced to annihilate some, part again, that he may answer the necessity. of creating? fomething like this must be supposed on their scheme. And if, on the other hand, it were possible he mould produce matter in time only; then it was possible too that matter might not be eternal: and if it were possible it might not be eternal, by what argument can a man shew that it was really eternal? They who would defend the eternity of matter, must at any rate sick to the impossibility of its being otherwise, or that God produced it necessarily. And indeed, these men have endeavoured to explain themselves by comparisons that shew they had this notion of the Deity, "As the " Sun, (fay they) if it had eternally existed, " would have eternally produced light, or an opaque body a shadow, or a foot a footstep; " fo the material world is an eternal production, or consequence of God who is eternal." It is easy to observe here first that the fun, the body, or the foot, are not effici-

ent causes producing an action of themselves, but things of a passive and necessary nature, which Another Agent uses as instruments to produce the effect. A foot, v. gr. is but the instrument or thing, whereby a free Agent (man) produces the print or vestige: And to fay, " If a man had eternally produced the " impression of his foot in sand, or the sig-" nature of a feal in wax, it would have been " an eternal effect," is no proof or illustration of the thing intended to be cleared up by the comparison, but a bare supposition of it in other words. The production of an impreffion in wax or fand is an action, and implies the limits of a beginning and an end; for it cannot be conceived that any one should be eternally a-putting on an impression, without having at any time really put it on. The same may be said concerning the Sun producing light, or an opaque body hindering the progress of it: fince these are necessary things, and not free Agents, it is the same as to fay, if some Being had from eternity given that property to the Sun, whereby it emits light, or that property to another body, whereby it casts a shade; then light would have been eternally produced, and a shade eternally

ternally projected: which supposes the thing in question, but no way shews how it is posfible. All these examples preposterously suppose the uneffected eternity of matter in some circumstance or other, in order to shew that it might have had an effected eternity, so to fpeak; which is, I conceive, to suppose one absurdity, in order to prove another. Besides, they change the question to this, Whether God be a free Being, or a necessary Agent, as it is called; though any Being, fo far as it is determined by a physical necessity, is rather a patient than an agent, being passive from that thing which imposes the necessity. To make their comparisons suit the design, it ought to follow, that it is the nature of God to create matter, as necessarily as it is of the Sun to emit light, which cannot not do it.

XVII. But to be a little more particular concerning necessity. To be determined by a physical necessity is a mark of a dependent nature; as here in the fun or opaque body (0):

" triangle

⁽⁰⁾ Here this question hath been put, "Do not those necessary effects, which have been ascribed to the sun and opaque body, arise from their nature? And why is it more a mark of dependence in them, than in a

and the dependence is upon the Being imposing that necessity. Now to extend this kind
of necessity over the first and supreme Being,
implies just this contradiction, That there is
some Being prior to the first, or superior to
the Supreme. This Being imposes a physical
necessity on all inanimate things in nature:
that is, as we have seen in Sect. II. Vol. I.

" triangle to have its angles equal to fuch a fum?" But I answer, there is no parity between the two instances adduced. That the three angles of a triangle should be equal to two right angles is an eternal truth which obtains by an absolute or metaphysical necessity, and dotle not concern any thing of existence: and truth is none of those things that can become dependent, or be created or made. How absurd would it found to speak of creating truth, or making more truth exist? The sun, or opaque body contrarily, are fubstances existing, capable at least of being made or created, and but simply possible in idea, not absolutely or eternally necessary. Thus they cannot be other than dependent. That a body should emit light, or reflect it, rather than transmit it, is a positive institution of fome being fo ordering it; and therefore a mark of dependence, as I affert. There would be no propriety in faying A mathematical truth is a depending thing. In short, we must distinguish between ideas that were eternally and necessarily connected in an infinite Mind, for these make eternal and absolute truths; and ideas that were but only barely compatible in it eternally, which constitute the natures of all created substances.

really

really acts upon them; so that the action which we think we discover in them, is his immediate action. This action discovering itself feveral ways in the feveral bodies of the universe, and always uniformly and regularly, is termed necessity in them, as in a stone falling downward; and called, with respect to the uniform constancy of it, by Philosophers, the law of their nature. And it is from these instances only, that we get a notion of physical necessity; which I wish might be attended to. But men getting the first notion of it thus, and then extending it over the supreme Being bimfelf, proceeded contradictorily, imagining there was still some superior nature above the Supreme: which was to make a chimera, a contradictory creature of the fancy, the fupreme, or rather supremest Cause (p.)

XVIII. On

(p) When Cyniscus consutes Jupiter in Lucian, and makes him a Drudge to fate, insisting that sate performs all, he adds these remarkable words: 'Οιδ' οὐδὲ Τ εἰμαρμένην τιμῶνθες ἀν, εἰς δέον αὐτὸ ἔπρατθον' οὐ γὰρ οἷμαι δύναθον ἐδὲ αὐταῖς ἔτι Τ μοίραις ἀλλάξαι ὰ μεθαθείψαί τι τῶν ἐξ ἀρχῆς δοξάνθων περὶ ἐκάςου. This wonderfully exposes a chimerical necessity, and shews the absurdity of our prejudice, tho' contrary to the Author's design. Jupiter is a slave to the Destinies: the Destinies themselves can change

XVIII. On the other hand, to call this necessity of creating matter, a moral necessity, such,

change nothing in those decrees that were originally established about every thing. What being was it then which established these unalterable decrees? That indeed is the secret. It is an empty and unsupported necessity; something which is nothing which tyrannizes over all things. Let

an Admirer of fatal necessity solve this Riddle.

This argument will perhaps force him to fay, that this fatal necessity is in the nature of the supreme Being himfelf, without running higher for it: and I think, this is what the modern Sceptics generally hint at now, and mean, though perhaps they do not speak out. But let them explain why there should be a necessity of imperfection in a necessarily existing Being, that is, in the perfectest Being? To admit of a mixture of perfection and imperfection, and then to affign the limits of each, will confound all their philosophy. There is certainly a necessity of perfection in such a Being; and to say there is likewife a necessity of imperfection in him, is to say there are two absolute opposite necessities in him, which would defroy each other; and this would leave no necessity of perfection in him at all. This looks like direct Atheism: and certainly the admitting a contrariety and opposition in the nature of the supreme Being will always end in Atheifm. -As I argued above with respect to existence, so I may argue here. There is a necessity of some perfection undoubtedly; otherwise there would have been a necesfity of universal and eternal impersection; and then no perfession

fuch, to wit, as determines the Agent to act, from the confideration of what is wifest

perfection could have been so much as possible. And if there be a necessity of any perfection, it must be a necessity of infinite perfection; because there could not be two opposite necessities, both of perfection, and its contrary; and because imperfection, being a negation, is not a thing of which necessity or eternity can be predicated, any more than of nothing. Thus a necessarily existing Being is necessarily infinitely perfect. Let us confider how acting by a physical necessity agrees with this. To act by a physical necessity implies a physical impotence of acting otherwise; for if God had a phyfical power to act otherwise, he could only be under a moral necessity of acting as he doth, of creating matter, or doing any other action. Now this physical impotence will run through every part of the contrivance of the material world; if it be not abfurd to speak of contrivance on this hypothesis, but rather proper to call it a fatal and necessary constitution. For example, God could not have made the earth to turn round on its axis in a shorter or longer time than it doth; effecting the present motion by a physical necessity, i.e. wanting power to have done otherwise; and the length of our νυχθήμερον must be a thing as necessary and immutable as the truth of any one of Euclid's propositions. This the Fatalists cannot get over. He could not have created one atom more or less of matter than he hath done; this proceeding likewise from a necessity of nature: unless it should be said, as above, that he creates it constantly from this necessity, not having power to abstain. He could not have given any atom an-

and best to be done, supposes that they who affirm God to have been under this necessity,

can

other degree of velocity, nor altered the direction of its motion in the leaft. Every thing in nature is an example of this. Supposing the number of hairs on a man's head to be n, he could not have caused that this number should be n+1, or n-1. The refult of all is, It would imply a physical contradiction, that any thing in nature should have been otherwise than it is; since the greatest power possible was not able to effect any the least deviation: and that is again, Every thing is as it is, by a natural, inevitable fate. This is the conclusion as fair as I am able to draw it. Now if this be fo, why need we any longer own a nominal Deity? I find no difference between this and the rankest Atheism. Here is a fatal necessity supreme, and the Deity still the Drudge of all-performing destiny. What is it to us whether things fall out by blind chance, or come to pass by rigid, unalterable fate? If what goes under the name of the perfectest Being can have no liberty, we can have none. On either scheme we have nothing to hope or fear .- Compare this now with that kind of necessity which I just now shewed must belong to an infinitely perfect Being. Hence let it be observed that to give the Deity power without liberty, is to take away every reason we can have to own him, or to wish that he were: fuch a Deity ferves the Atheist's turn as well as chance itself. But let it be remarked here, that this scheme of making the Deity act by a physical necesfity is repugnant to itself. For upon this hypothesis it would be contradictory for any of the heavenly Bodies, VOL. II. Cc

can affign the wife confideration which determined him to produce this eternal effect: can assign the reason, I say; otherwise the asfertion must turn to supposition only and conjecture: besides, it is unphilosophical to suppose that moral necessity can determine an Agent to do what we must look upon as a phyfical contradiction, unless we could form a confistent idea of an eternal action having both beginning and end. The only moral motive which, I think, can be alledged, why God should have created the world from eternity is, that he might have communicated happiness and perfection to rational creatures as soon as possible. But we cannot conceive even this, without allowing him a priority of time, or to have been pre-existent to his own effects. And if we allow him a priority, that by itself cannot be less than an eternity: otherwise two limited periods must make up

to move with a less degree of velocity than they do, the Deity being physically impotent to effect this: and yet even this is a contradiction, that a Being who is able to do more, should not have the physical power to do that which is less. As if it were said, a man who hath strength to raise a certain weight, would not be able to lift the half of it. So much is the Deity but a name for satal necessity upon this scheme!

his

his eternity. Not to mention that, if we may speak of the reasonableness of an earlier or later existence, creatures that were to enjoy an eternity of existence à parte post, as it is called, have no reason to complain that they were not fooner created. Mathematicians allow that lines infinite or endless one way, are equal, whatever difference there may be on their finite extremes; and this supposition agrees with the exactness of demonstration: and we find Lucretius on his scheme, comforting those who are to die first, by telling them that the eternity of non-existence which they have before them; will be no longer than theirs who are to be born ages after. And this is applicable the other way. They who are born latest, have still an eternal duration before them. Befides that fuch creatures before they exist can complain of nothing, since they are not in the predicament of Being: a nonens is capable neither of good or bad treatment: At this rate we might complain that we were not all born at once, nay that we were not all eternal, as eternal as God, self-existent. What absurdities may we not insist on, if we allow ourselves to proceed in this manner (p)? Up-

(q) Men who affect the height of free-thinking, and Cc2 know

on the whole then, reason neither admits of matter's being eternally created, nor can either physical

know not what it is, are even capable of entring fuch complaints as these here mentioned, in order to shew that the constitution of things is wrong. " Can any bounds be " fet to desire (fays one); may not I wish to be as wife, as co powerful, as happy, as any Being else is; infinitely per-" feet? Why am I made capable of defiring what I am not capable of attaining?" Free-thinking is certainly a good thing if it be rational: but if it exceed the bounds of reason, it of course becomes absurd thinking. If one would put the question, May not I desire what is absurd, a contradiction? He would fee what answer it required; namely, that he should defire to be rational in the first place. That all Beings should be equally powerful, happy, perfect, is the wildest absurdity. The constitution of things is not wrong, but such desire foolish and inconsistent. We cannot help, it is true, defiring to be as happy as possible: but our chief desire in order to this should be, That things may have been constituted by infinite wisdom and goodness. And if so, our wishes are prevented. Man will certainly be as happy as possibility and reason can permit. Would he have reason to give way, or impossibility to take place, to gratify his abfurdity? Since free-thinking came to be in vogue, we run to it from a mistaken conceit, as if it were to free us from all restraint, a permission to talk licentiously of every thing. But on the contrary, it ties us down to the severity of eternal reason. To be free from reason is the greatest slavery, which we ignorantly affect. It is not free-thinking to pull down every thing, and build up nothing.

physical or moral necessity be alledged why it should be so; and an eternal effect, though now become a philosophical term, will nevertheless be an eternal contradiction (r.)

XIX. Having

mine

thing. That would be making war upon all the principles of action and reason itself.

(r) Mr. Leibnitz has contended that God could not have created the material world less than infinite, not having a sufficient reason to determine in what part of infinite Space a finite mass of matter was to be placed. But upon the same account it might be contended, that he could not have made it other than eternal, not having a fufficient reason to determine in what period of eternity, (if I may fo speak) it was to commence. And then we have an eternal as well as infinite creation, from the force of this principle; which is a contradiction in terms, if by creation be meant a thing's getting existence which had it not before; and if it always had existence it could not be created. Examples of this fort are numberless: Of two similar, equal and solid particles of matter, and Dr. Clarke shews there must be numberless such particles, unless we will fay that matter is all pores without any folidity in it: of any two of these, I say, God could not have placed the one in any position, or in any particular body, rather than the other, not having a reason to determine the preference. Again, fince all might have been adjusted after the fame manner as at present, if the heavenly bodies had moved from east to west, instead of moving from west to east; it follows, that God could not have made them move either way, not having a fufficient reason to deter-

Cc3

XIX. Having shewn that matter is not eternal in any sense, one is naturally led to obferve,

mine which of the ways. Thus, according to this principle, God could not have made the world at all, nor the least thing in it; for such reasons will hinder every thing; and this moral necessity extended beyond its bounds into barely physical circumstances, ties down the power of the Deity more rigidly than fatal necessity itself. If it be asked, Doth ever God act then without a sufficient reason for the action, and a wife view? I answer, he doth not: but the sufficient reason of action is taken from the nature of the whole effect, the use and design of it; not from physical circumstances in themselves indifferent. God had the most sufficient reason, and the wifest designs to anfwer in creating the world, which are not, cannot be fruflrated, by there being one atom more or less of matter in it, by its being created a minute fooner or later, by its exifting in the present portion of space rather than another; and we grofly misplace the sufficiency of the reason, when we lodge it in the indifference of physical things; and, in truth, it is no better than to make a flave of the Deity to deny his power to accomplish an end, because there are more ways than one by which it might be equally well effected. If it should be faid, "We are not to supso pose such indifference even in physical circumstances; nor " therefore that God could have made the least variation " in these, without a sufficient reason to determine him." I answer, Mr. Leibnitz himself supposes such indifference when he afferts that there was no reason why God might

ferve, that the great and only objection against its having been created, is the old maxim,

From

not have placed a finite quantity of matter as well in one part of infinite space as another. Besides, reason forces us to make this supposition. Every infinitely little variation of physical circumstances could not in the nature of things have had a different sufficient reason to determine it. Let us remember that extension is infinitely divisible, in which fingle respect there will arise an infinite number of infinitely little variations in producing the meanest physical effect, every one of which must nevertheless have been determined by a separate sufficient reason: for if any two of fuch infinitely fmall variations had been without their determining reasons, an indifference would have stood in the way, and the effect have been stopt for ever. Ex. gr. God must have had millions of different reasons to determine whether the annual orbit of the earth should have been half an inch larger or less than what it is; for there are millions of variations between these extremes: nay, to determine whether one fingle hair of a man's head should have been half an inch longer or shorter; for, even this comes not to pass without his immediate power. And the same is to be said of the divisibility of time, variability of the celerity of motion, of its direction, with other numberless particulars.

Now to apply this to the present argument: Since any affignable portion of time, a minute, v. g. is as infinitely divisible as extension, supposing there was a sufficient reason determining the commencement of matter to a certain hour, nay to a minute of that hour, still God wanted

Cc4

From nothing nothing can be produced, nor can any thing return to nothing. But this is

an infinite number of other determining reasons whether it should commence at one rather than another of these infinitely little tempuscula. For if the reasons for any two had coincided, these two would have been indifferent, to the ruining of this scheme; or else the equilibrium whether creation should have commenced the millionth part of a minute fooner or later, must have kept God in eternal sufpence, and made the existence of his rational creation impossible! Thus, as I said, this scheme makes the reasonableness, the wisdom, and the goodness of God in all his works depend on the determining the indifference of phyfical circumstances, abfurdly; and fetters his power even more rigidly than Stoical fate. It makes him (absit blafphemia) the ass between the two bundles of hay, or the needle between the two loadstones. What pleasure can men take in endeavouring to shew that both God and themselves are flaves! For this new-invented necessity extended over man deprives him not only of felf-motion but the power of willing; of which in another place.

We are to fay then, that God hath a wife end in producing every effect; but that his own will is sufficient to determine him which of two or more indifferent means he shall use in producing it. And since we see that a world is really created, we must say this; unless men will run back to fatal necessity for determining the indifference of physical circumstances, and incur the abfur-

dities shewn in the last note.

From this reasoning it follows, That liberty consists

of no force, when afferted in opposition to the efficiency of infinite power; unless it could be shewn that the creation of matter implies a contradiction, which cannot be done. For how can it be shewn that creation ex nibilo by infinite power is a contradiction, unless by denying fuch power altogether? And fince infinite power implies no contradiction, it must at least be possible: and if it be possible it must be more, viz. necessary, since it is a thing that cannot be produced by any Being, which production we must suppose when we fay, a thing is possible; a thing possible to no Being is impossible. And I have shewn elsewhere (see sect. IV. Vol. I.) the absurdity of supposing that any power (finite or infinite) should be only casual, or accidental in nature (s.) As to the maxim itself; men indeed observing that in the natural generation and corruption of bodies, there was not any production of new matter, nor destruction of old, but only a change of the fenfible qualities or

not only in acting according to moral motives where they are; but in felf-determination by the power of the will, where circumstances are indifferent; and that in the Deity himself.

⁽s) See the argument in the Note (q) where infinite perfection is shewn necessary.

accidents, arising from a change of figure, position, &c. settled this into a maxim in that case, That from nothing nothing could arise, nor any thing return to nothing; by the law of generation and corruption, that now obtains. And so far it was a good observation certainly, gathered from experience: but there was no necessary connexion between the ideas in it, why it should always be so, and impossible to be otherwise, (as there ought to have been to make it a first principle) otherwise men needed not have been beholden to experience for it, as they were (t); but would necessarily have seen it, or might at least have collected it from abstract reasoning. And how could men, by observing the law of generation and corruption that now ob-

(t) See Lucretius's arguments for this; after abundance of other examples to prove that nothing can ever arise from nothing, or be reduced to nothing, he says,

Postremò, percunt imbres, ubi eos pater æther In gremio matris terraï præcipitavit. At nitidæ surgunt fruges, ramique virescunt Arboribus: crescunt ipsæ, fætuque gravantur.—— And at last he concludes,

Haud igitur penitus pereunt quæcunque videntur; Quando aliud ex alio reficit natura: nec ullam Rem gigni patitur, nist morte adjutam alienâ.

Lib. 1. ver. 250.

tains, collect that it was impossible to be otherwise, but by supposing that law never to bave had a beginning, nor to have been instituted by an infinitely wife and powerful Being, but the effect of furd necessity, predominating in all things, and over all things; itself nothing, and belonging to nothing, as Lucretius, the great Abettor of this principle, did, who notwithstanding his other principle, chance, is forced to have recourse to an unsupported necessity here? Besides, it is to be noticed that this maxim is not demonstratively certain even in the case of natural generation and corruption. The thing feems to be true and reasonable; but the means of observing fail men before they come to the subtilty of nature's work, and the first principles of body in these operations: and after that, all the experiments men can make, and all their obfervations, will never amount to demonstrative certainty. What arguments could a man oppose to one who denied the maxim to hold even in generation and corruption? None furely but making him observe the instances of generation and corruption themselves: which shews the truth of what I here affirm. It is true, we say God and nature do nothing in vain;

vain; and this is most certain: but the question recurs, What is vain to be done? Ease and difficulty with respect to us are not applicable to infinity of power (u): and in this last axiom infinity

(u) We may observe in the works of nature [an apparent] frugality of means indeed; but a great profuseness and magnificence of materials. This we fee in the exuberancy of feed annually produced from every plant and vegetable: there is a great deal allowed for waste, so to fpeak. But pardon me, if I should endeavour to correct the first part of this observation, which regards the frugality of the means in producing any natural effect. We understand this, as if small power was applied, to bring to pass the greatest things, which is altogether wrong. The power of the Deity himself is every where applied, in the minutest circumstances, and in bringing to pass things to us the most contemptible. How can this be a frugality of means? There is indeed an admirable simplicity in the method, and an uniform law observed in the production of the feveral kinds of plants and animals, as much as is confistent with the variety of the species. This teaches us what we are to think of the wisdom of this Being. The method is varied by imperceptible degrees through all the tribes of the vegetable and animal kingdoms; and opposite extremes are thus joined by gentle and easy transitions. Even here then there is a richness, a profuseness of invention and contrivance. And the same efficacious power is every where exhibited, to teach us what we are to think of him in this respect of his Omnipotence. It is so far from being true, that great things are brought to pass

infinity of power is supposed. If then even in the case of generation and corruption, this maxim falls short of the self-evidence of an axiom or intuitive truth, how can it be opposed to the possibility of creation by infinite power? Or where is the force of it compelling men to assert that brute-matter, a thing entirely of a passive nature, by their own conception of it, should be self-existent?

XX. Lucretius makes this his first principle, and the ground-work of his whole book (v): but his reasoning upon it is loose and

by small power, that, on the contrary, a stupendous power is manifested in the most ordinary appearances of nature. This the excellent Borelli sirst observed in animal motion; and the ingenious Mr. Hales, by a course of happy experiments, hath shewn the same in the force of the ascending sap in vegetables. And since all is performed by the immediate power of the Deity; the means, the method, the materials, in every production of nature, declare him to be infinite in Power, in Knowledge, in Goodness.

(v) Principium hinc cujus nobis exordia sumet Nullam rem è nihilo gigni divinitùs unquam.

Lib. 1. ver. 150.

And this principle he proposes as an excellent remedy against the fear of any superior power.

Quippe ita formido mortaleis continet omneis, Quod multa in terris fieri cæloque tuentur,

Quorum

and frivolous. He argues from generation and corruption, to the first production of matter; as if the first formation of the material world, and the creation of matter, were to be accounted for by the same mechanical laws that now obtain in it, as it is formed: telling us if natural bodies rose spontaneously out of nothing, (as if ever men had supposed this without a divine power) we should see men spring out of the sea, fishes and birds from the earth, and herds of cattle burst out of the clouds (x):

and

Quorum operum causas nulla ratione videre
Possunt, ac sieri divino Numine rentur.
Quas ob res, ubi viderimus nil posse creari
De nihilo; tum, quod sequitur, jam rectius inde
Prospiciemus, & unde queat res quæque creari,
Et quo quæque modo siant, opera sine Divum. Ibida
(x) Nam si de nihilo sierent; ex omnibu' rebus
Onne genus nasci posset: nil semine egeret.
E mare primum homines, e terra posset oriri
Squammigerum genus, & volucres: erumpere cælo
Armenta, atque aliæ pecudes: genus omne ferarum
Incerto partu culta, ac deserta tenerent:
Nec fructus iidem arboribus constare solerent,

Sed mutarentur: ferre omnes omnia possent, &c. Ibid. Here he first excludes all divine power, and then supposes, if creation ex nihilo were possible, things ought to start up out of nothing every day: He makes the greatest instances of government and superintendence, viz. the regular

observation.

3

and thence infers, that matter could not at all have been created, shuffling in an universality into his conclusion from very limited premisses (y.)

observation of the several species in natural productions, so many arguments against a superintendence, and by a strange piece of logic ascribes all to a negative efficient. If any modern Sceptic should not have had leisure to consider the reasons upon which he rejects the Deity and his superintendence in nature; these are the great principles, and basis of his belief, as fair as I am able to represent them; and lest I may have made a mistake inadvertently, I have cited the Original. I shall only mention another argument for the eternity of matter, which is, "That, if it had not been eternal, all things would long ago have fallen into nothing, and sprung up again out of nothing."

Præterea, nisi materies æterna fuisset
Antehac, ad nihilum penitus res quæque redissent,
De nihiloque renata forent, quæcunque videmus,
At quoniam supra docui nil posse creari
De nihilo, &c.

(y) Answers to metaphysical questions must be unentertaining to the greatest part of Readers, and perhaps scarce intelligible to any but those who could start the distinculties: however, I shall venture to add one note more of this kind here, as in a place that will give the objection contained in the following Question, the greatest advantage. I had no design to enter into these nice disquissions, at least in this place; but as a remarkable difficulty hath been occasioned by what I have advanced against eternal

eternal uncaused matter; if a rational folution can be offered, perhaps the ground of starting such difficulties may for the future be removed, and the truth more readily embraced. The question is; "If indifference as to the " manner of existing is inconsistent with necessary exi-66 stence, are not all the actions of a necessarily existing 66 Being, what may be confidered as the manner of his ex-66 iftence, and therefore necessary?" This question carries the greatest difficulty with it, when considered with respect to the creation of the Universe, which is, as it were, the beginning of a new period in the eternity of God: for after creation, the work of Providence commences, and the constant superintendence of all his creatures, which feems a new scene of affairs to the Deity: fo that we must either allow some change (with respect to action) in him, and therefore in the manner of his existence; or if otherwise, his actions must be as necessary as the manner of his existence; and then we must admit of the confequences of this physical necessity, which leaves him a Being whom we need not regard. To this I anfwer, first, That it hath been shewn above to satisfaction, I hope, That indifference as to the manner of existence is inconsistent with necessity of existence, or that the manner of necessary existence is itself necessary; as also, That the actions of the Deity cannot proceed from a physical necessity; that would only make him a powerful, but furd Being, (i. e. having power without intelligence) which is inconfistent with the necessity of infinite perfection. Now these true points being proved true feparately, and independent of each other, the right method of going on in the investigation of the truth will be, to draw this corollary from

from them joined together, That these actions of the Deity, because not eternal, cannot be considered as the manner of his existence; and that, though free, they yet produce no change in the manner of it. And if I had made this a consequence from these two points, every one must have granted, that I proceeded according to the method of demonstration, and that therefore the conclusion itself was unexceptionable. It can never be allowed, that what may follow as a consequence from a proposition proved, may be made an objection against it. Such a method would overturn all geometry. Inflances of which I need not give. Dr. Barrow, after a Theorem of Euclid (16 El. 3.) fays, Ex hac propositione paradoxa consequuntur, & mirabilia bene multa. It would be hard to make one of these wonderful consequences an objection against the demonstration from which it follows. This is that case, in which we know certainly that a thing is, but know not the manner how it is ; and the present point is an instance of it. It is certain, that God doth not act from a physical necessity, and that the manner of his existence is immutable; whence it follows that his actions, though free, do not change the manner of his existence: this, I fay, is certain; but the manner how it is exceeds our comprehension. And yet (with that humility which becomes us when we speak of this infinite, wonderful, adorable Being) we may go a little farther in this point, and reason thus.

If a rational mind is very finite, as ours is, it can have but one object under view at once, or one particular thing under the confideration of the intellect at a time; and it can therefore will but one thing to be done at once. This we can eafily conceive from our own experience. But if the mind be less limited, or perfecter in kind, Vol. II.

which, as not involving contradiction, I have liberty to suppose, it will be able, as such, to have two objects under the confideration of the understanding at once, and to will two distinct things to be performed at once: and its power, corresponding to its other perfections, will be able to perform both at once. And, without mentioning other intermediate degrees, we may imagine the progression to go on. Now, if we suppose the mind to become at last infinite, or all limits to be taken away from it, it must (as such) have an infinite number of objects under the intuition of the intellect at once, or an infinite number of things all in view at a time; and this by the fame kind of reason as a very finite mind can have but one; and be able to will an infinite number of things all to be done at once; and its power being also infinite, or without limitation, it will be able to perform them all at the same time, without perplexity or disorder (instances of which I hope have appeared, when the various, indefinent, univerfal action of an immaterial Being upon all the parts of matter, in all places, and at all times, was shewn to be necessary to support the material world.) This, I fay, it will be able to do quà infinite. Infinite perfection directly implies this; and it would be abfurd to deny it, because we cannot conceive the manner of it.

The first step being duly weighed, let us next confider this Infinite Mind as necessarily existing, and in that respect it must have had an infinite number of objects under the view of the intellect, not only once, but always. Necessity of existence doth not limit infinity of persection, but shews that infinity necessary and eternal. It would not be having an infinite and necessary understanding, (i. e. a necessarily infinite understanding) to be able to compressed an infinity of things at once, and for a little only,

and

and then to wink and relax: we must own that such an understanding must have had a comprehension of infinite things, (i. e. an infinite comprehension) necessarily and eternally. Thus then a necessarily infinite intellect must have had all objects necessarily and eternally in view, and under immediate prospect. And this is the main point gained. This is infinite knowledge! And such a Being must have had infinite knowledge by a physical, or natural necessary; even those who are least attentive must see that the terms all along imply it. But mark, This is a physical necessary of perfection, as it ought to be. To make the Being free here would be to make it imperfect: we might as well say, free to exist necessarily or not, as free to have infinite knowledge or not to have it.

The next thing to be considered is, that this Being having all things always and necessarily in view, must always and eternally will according to his infinite comprehension of things; that is, must will all things that are wifest and best to be done. There is no getting free of this consequence. If it can will at all it must will this way. To be capable of knowing and not capable of willing is not to be understood; and to be capable of willing otherwise than what is wifest and best contradicts that knowledge which is infinite. Infinite knowledge must direct the will without the error. Here then is the origin of moral necessity, and that is really of freedom: for the Being is not determined to this constant and eternal act of willing, by a physical energy or power constantly acting, but from the knowledge of the eternal aptitudes and agreeableness of things to each other; or in other words, from the intuition of the eternal relations of its own ideas, which are the archetypes of things. Indeed to will by a physical necessity, or by the determination

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and

and impulse of an external physical cause, is, when nearly confidered, a direct contradiction; it is not to will, but to be involuntarily determined, the same as to say to will whether a thing wills or not, or to will against the will. Perhaps it may be faid, when the divine will is determined from the consideration of the eternal aptitudes of things, it is as necessarily determined, as if it were physically impelled, if that were possible. But it is unskilfulness to suppose this an objection. The great principle is once established, viz. That the divine will is determined by the eternal reason and aptitudes of things, instead of being physically impelled: and after that the more strong and necessary this determination is, the more perfect the Deity must be allowed to be. It is this that makes him an amiable, an adorable Being, whose will and power are constantly, immutably, determined by the consideration of what is wifest and best, instead of a surd Being with power, but without discerning or reason. It is the beauty of this necessity that it is as strong as fate itself, with all the advantage of reason and goodness. This constant all of willing proceeds from his knowledge; it is true; but as proceeding from knowledge, it is to be confidered as determined by knowledge; and knowledge must be considered as having a priority of nature, though not of time. Hence the wonderful nature of the divine will, that it is both immutable, as proceeding from a necessary physical perfection; and yet infinitely rational, as being the iffue of infinite and true knowledge, or the knowledge of all truth. It is strange to see men contend that the Deity is not free, because he is necessarily rational, immutably good and wife; when a man is allowed still the perfecter Being, the more fixedly and constantly his will is determined by reason and truth. Liberty, as I have faid before, confifts in being determined.

termined by moral motives (the more unerringly and constantly the better) in opposition to being physically impell'd (which indeed takes away the act of willing, or any act, properly speaking) and in self-determination by the power of the will amidst the indifference of physical circumstances. And let it be here remembered that all this follows eafily and without the trouble of fuch a long deduction, when once it is shewn that there is a necessity of infinite perfection, that is, of a Being infinitely perfect, which appears from what has been faid above; for fince all this is a perfection, it must be in that Being. And who, though ever so much engaged on the opposite side, will venture expresly to say that to be determined by moral motives is not a perfection? Or to be felf-determined by the power of the will, where physical circumstances are indifferent, in order to effect a wife and good purpose, is not a perfection?

But to go forward, if next we consider the actions of this Being as exerted upon his creatures in confequence of this eternal act of willing, they are (as in consequence of that) guided by the absolutely greatest council and wisdom, and therefore performed in the fittest time, manner, circumstances. But what is chiefly to the present purpose is. that though vast power is exerted, as in moving the heavenly bodies, for instance, yet it is exerted without struggle, effort or contention of strength, so to say. Ease and difficulty are not applicable to infinity of perver: they are the marks of our limitation, but vanish here. That power would not be infinite, by which one thing were done smoothly, and another thing with rugged labour and toil. Let him who hath the term [infinite power] often in his mouth, consider only the import of it. To perform is equally eafy as to will to this Being, and that without a figure, but upon the foot of reason and argu-

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ment.

ment. All this is still implied in necessary infinity of perfection. And this at length will help us to conceive that even the actions of this Being no more change the manner of his existence than his willing them, there being no emotion, stress or contention in performing the effect that might occasion an alteration. Nor can they be considered as the manner of his existence; since they are temporary, successive (as in the motions of matter) and not necessary, as it must be.

We shall better conceive this, if we consider why, and how, our manner of existence is constantly changed; and this particular deserves our attention. In short, this happens in our bodies from motion, relative situation, and a constant flux of parts; from all which an immaterial Being must be free. In our minds the manner of existence is changed from a constant succession of ideas, and the occurring of new objects, new defires, and the willing new effects to be produced. This happens from the finiteness of our minds. If we have any compass of thought, knowledge, ideas, will, it must be by the successive admillion of new objects, into the mind. In an Infinite Mind it is quite the reverse of this: all things must be always and eternally in view, whence no new object of defire can happen, nor therefore change in the will (which is the great fource of the change of the manner of existence in our minds); and though the actions are performed in time, and commensurately with the successive existence of creatures, yet this is without change of thought, motion, or any kind of alteration: it is without calling the attention from other things, to apply it to that thing; or calling the power from other places to apply it in that place. This is a wonderful superiority of nature; so far above our way, that we are struck with admiration at the

thought:

thought: and yet the certainty of the conclusion will make one contemplate it with pleasure.

It was from these considerations that Boëtius defines the eternity of God to be vitæ interminabilis tota simul & perfecta possessio (De consol. phil. lib. 5. pros. 6.) for in a necessarily infinite intellect all things must be always and necessarily present; from necessary infinity of knowledge all the purposes of wisdom and reason must be willed by one indefinent act: no new object can offer to the understanding, no mutability can happen therefore to the will, nor therefore can there be any rifing or falling of pleasure and happiness. And this is indeed interminabilis vitæ tota simul & perfecta possessio; which coincides with this, That the manner of necessary existence is itself necessary, and necessarily the best. Quod (fays this Philosopher) ex collatione temporalium clarius liquet; nam quicquid vivit in tempore, id præsens à præterito in futurum procedit: nihilque est in tempore constitutum, quod totum vitæ suæ spatium pariter possit amplecti. This is undeniably a mark of imperfection to live by change, to lose what is past, to want what is yet to come, and to place infinite happiness in a succession of things, though all pleasant. If any state were good, why should it pass? If any thing will be pleafant, why should it not be present? Why should it be first in expectation, a minute in enjoyment, and then in reflexion only? This, I fay, is plainly a mark of imperfection; it is our own flate; and therefore to be denied concerning a Mind infinitely perfect. If the Roman Consul had gone into the fceptical ways of thinking now fashionable, he would not have left us fuch a noble, fuch a philosophical, fuch an exalted idea of the Divine Mind. See here Dr. CLARKE's Demonstrat. Part. 1. Prop. 5.

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Laftly,

Lastly, To obviate the main thing objected: from all this we may fee that when God created the Universe, as there was no new object of knowledge presented to his Intellect, nor new defire to his Will, so there was no new difficulty started to his Power; fince, as was above shewn, to perform must be equally easy to necessary infinity of power, as to will the performance. The creation of a world, the fuperintendence of his own works, the methods of Providence, and the whole scheme of procedure, especially with respect to rational Beings, were no novelties to him, but what he had in view, familiar (if I may fo fay) from eternity. Let it be observed here (lest I fhould be forced to make unnecessary repetitions) what I have shewn above to be the import of a necessarily infinite Intellect. In a word, after we have once more confidered that, if there be a necessity for any Being, it must be for infinite Being; and if there be a necessity for any perfection, it must be for infinite Perfection (it cannot be for infinite diminished by any quantity, in either case): after this, I fay, it would be a low, unphilosophical prejudice to think that God could be lonely, and without entertainment, before the existence of his own effects, or put to any difficulty by them after they existed; that he could have bettered his condition by them, or that it would have been worse without them.

I cannot end this note, tho' already too long, without faying fomething of the unfuccessive existence of the Deity, or of his unsuccessive eternity. This is an extremely metaphysical speculation, and there hath been much controversy about it. What we may say safely in it will also be easily seen, I humbly conceive, from what goes before. There is certainly no succession of ideas, desires, will, in the infinite or necessary Mind; and therefore no change or mutability

mutability in it. This follows when it is shewn that the manner of existence of a necessarily existing mind must be itfelf necessary and immutable, of which I have given two different demonstrative proofs above (No 6 and 7.) Thus there is really no actual succession in the manner of God's existence, that is, in his eternity, nay, not after the existence of a material world. The changes and succeffions that then happen, happen to fomething else not to HIM. And yet, fince the successive or changing existence of creatures is co-existing with the unsuccessive and immutable existence of the Deity, we may see that this coexistence might have been ages sooner, or that the one doth not exclude the other, nor is inconsistent with it, but as being infinitely greater, comprehends it. We see in another case, that tho' all motion (a mark of finity, and itfelf successive) is in space, yet space itself is immoveable. It is, as I am apt to think, fomething like this successive and unsuccessive existence, both co-existing, which Aristotle means when he allows time to be within the mundane limits, but not without them. Confider his own words (loco Supra citat.) Xeov @ อัธ ธรุเง ผ่อเงินอิ: หเงท์จอพร หเงทุธเร วิ ส่งยบ фบอเหลื อผ่นลใต้ ล่ห ร่รไง. รีรัต ฏิ รลี อบ่อสหลี อร์อิเคมิสเ ότι 8τ' ές iv, 8τ' ένδεχείαι γενέσθαι σωμα. As if he had faid, "There is an unfuccessive existence, wherever there " are not changes and viciffitudes by motion." Thus far then, I think, we may go with clearness, and understand what we fay. On the other hand, it is, I think, scarce intelligible, to apply this successiveness or unsuccessiveness (fo to speak) to time itself, or to eternity abstractedly taken: these seem applicable only to Beings existing by themfelves: therefore they feem capable of no alteration or change in themselves, abstracting from the Beings existing in them. If all created Beings were taken away, all

possibi-

possibility of any mutation, or succession of one thing to another would appear to be also removed. Abstract succession in eternity is scarce to be understood. What is it that succeeds? One minute to another perhaps? [—velut unda supervenit undam.] But when we imagine this, we fancy that the minutes are things separately existing, which keep on their own course, tho' there were no Being at all existing. This is the common notion, and yet it is a manifest prejudice. Time is nothing but the existence of created, successive Beings and eternity the necessary existence of the Deity. Therefore if this necessary Being hath no change or succession in his nature, his existence must of course be unsuccessive.

We feem to commit a double over-fight in this case: first we find succession in the necessary nature and existence of the Deity himself, which is wrong, if the reafoning above be conclusive: And then we ascribe this fuccession to eternity, considered abstractedly from the Eternal Being, and suppose it [--one knows not what] a thing fubfifting by itself, and flowing one minute after another. This is the work of pure imagination, and contrary to the reality of things. Hence the common metaphorical expressions, "Time runs apace." "Let us lay " hold on the prefent minute :" and the like. The Philofophers themselves mislead us by their illustrations. They compare eternity to the motion of a point, running on for ever, and making a traceless infinite line. Here the point is supposed a thing actually subsisting, representing the present minute, and then they ascribe motion or succession to it; that is they ascribe motion to a mere non-entity, to illustrate to us a successive eternity. Hence all the perplexities of a past eternity, made up of finite successive parts: and hence the contradiction of a punctum stans; though

though in this case a punctum stans is no more a contradiction than a punctum movens: for in truth the punctum is nothing at all, either to stand still or move forward. As to the expression nunc stans, by which some school-men have chosen to describe eternity; it certainly implies opposite ideas, if applied to our existence, or if our manner of existence be applied to the Deity. For then we make [nunc] a relative term, which hath a reference to past and future. But this is a wrong application; and if once we allow an all-perfect Mind which hath an eternal, immutable, and infinite comprehension of all things, always (and allow it we must) the distinction of past and future vanishes with respect to such a Mind; and the expression nunc stans will appear to have propriety. In a word, if we proceed step by step, as above, the eternity or existence of the Deity will appear to be, Vitæ interminabilis tota simul & perfecta possessio, how much soever this may have been reckoned a paradox hitherto.

All this diffuse reasoning may (for the sake of memory) be comprised in two or three sentences. For, first, An infinitely perfect Mind must have a perfect comprehension of all things, always: and then, this Mind must always will what is infinitely reasonable, according to this infinite knowledge. From these two propositions it follows, That there can be no succession of ideas, nor change of will, in such a Mind. And, lastly, it must be as easy to Infinite Power to perform according to therule of infinite reason as to will the performance; for supposing difficulty denies infinity of power. And hence the actions of such a Being occasion no change in the manner of his existence; and yet, as directed by infinite reason, they cannot be physically necessary.

Thus we are come to the end of this tedious Enquiry concerning the Immateriality of the human soul, where the nature of the subject hath carried us through all the most abstructed and difficult points of natural Philosophy. The whole is submitted to the judgment of the Candid Reader. If any thing of importance hath been discovered, which may give a contrary turn to the present prevailing sceptical notions; this, with the variety and difficulty of the many things treated of, will, I hope, plead my excuse for such mistakes as do not affect the main design.

FINIS.

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THE

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